DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 377 176 SP 035 615

AUTHOR Dalton, Stephanie S.; And Others
TITLE A Program Evaluation of Support-and-Assessment of Beginning Teachers: A Responsive-Teaching Alternative to Diagnosis-and-Prescription.
PUB DATE 94
NOTE 124p.
AVAILABLE FROM Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) Program, National Research Center for Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, Santa Cruz County, CA Consortium, University of California, 141 Kerr Hall, Santa Cruz, CA 95604 ($8 with cover).
PUB TYPE Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Beginning Teacher Induction; *Beginning Teachers; College School Cooperation; *Educational Assessment; *Educational Practices; Elementary Secondary Education; Evaluation Methods; Higher Education; Journal Writing; Preservice Teacher Education; *Program Effectiveness; Program Evaluation; Self Evaluation (Individuals); Social Support Groups; Teacher Attitudes; *Teacher Evaluation; Theory Practice Relationship
IDENTIFIERS *Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment Proj CA; University of California Santa Cruz

ABSTRACT

The Santa Cruz County Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) program provides social and instructional support for novice teachers assigned primarily to language minority classrooms. This report, an evaluation and assessment of the program, is organized into chapters as follows: (1) "Introduction and Overview"; (2) "Program Descriptive Data: Participants and Operations" (demographics of beginning teachers and distribution of support by type, amount, and domain); (3) "Project Evaluation by Participants"; (4) "Teacher Beliefs and Self-Perceptions of Instructional Practices"; (5) "Interactive Journal and Individual Learning Plan Analysis"; (6) "BTSA as a Community of Practice: An Interpretive Analysis" (an integrated, interpretative analysis of the current practices of BTSA advisors and administration); and (7) "The Relationship between Assessment and Support: Theory and Practice" (a theoretical foundation for the forms of support and assessment practiced by BTSA). The final chapter provides recommendations for adjusting the BTSA program for the improvement of assessment of teacher needs and competencies. The recommendations fall into two general types: the organization of assessment and the methods of assessment. One recommendation was that the BTSA program be reviewed and adjusted so that opportunities for support in the school context be increased to match the successful support services encountered in preservice and advisor contexts. It was also recommended that BTSA preserve some form of objective evaluation. (Contains 19 references.) (LL)

ED 377 176

A PROGRAM EVALUATION OF SUPPORT-AND-ASSESSMENT OF BEGINNING TEACHERS: A RESPONSIVE-TEACHING ALTERNATIVE TO DIAGNOSIS-AND-PRESCRIPTION

by

Stephanie S. Dalton, Ronald W. Henderson, and Roland G. Tharp

with Linda Cunningham and Daniel Youpa

University of California at Santa Cruz

Santa Cruz County (California) Consortium
Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment Program
1993-1994

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

S. Dalton

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC).

SP035645

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

OUTLINE

Chapter I: Introduction and Overview

Chapter II: Program Descriptive Data: Participants and Operations

Demographics of Beginning Teachers

Distribution of support by type

Distribution of support by amount

Distribution of support by domains

Chapter III: Project Evaluation by Participants

Chapter IV: Teacher Beliefs and Self-Perceptions of Instructional Practices

Chapter V: Interactive Journal and Individual Learning Plan Analysis

Chapter VI: BTSA as a Community of Practice: An Interpretative Analysis

An integrated interpretative analysis of the current practices of the BTSA advisors and administration, considering them as an integrated community of practice with a strongly shared set of values, goals, and practices. Data analyses are related to this description.

Chapter VII: The Relationship between Assessment & Support: Theory and Practice

A theoretical foundation for the forms of support and assessment practiced by BTSA, demonstrating that their assessment practices are appropriate for their theory and conception of teaching and learning. Forms of record-keeping are suggested that will provide an adequate base of evidence for BTSA work.

Chapter VIII: Recommendations

References

I
INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Introduction

Beginning Teacher: Up until yesterday I've made several attempts to reach him, with some success, but he was the first F6 student [all year] to come in for help. It made me so happy.

I am reaching students!! That's why I went into teaching. I reached some one. The small returns.

Advisor: Congratulations! This is what it is all about!

Beginning Teacher: I have discovered that being a teacher is not going to be an easy job.

The Santa Cruz County Beginning Teacher Support and Assessement (BTSA) program has a history of providing social and instructional support for novice teachers assigned primarily to language minority classrooms in Santa Cruz County. The project is one of several which are funded under a statewide Beginning Teacher Training and Assessment (BTSA) Program. The Santa Cruz County BTSA has made major contributions through the development of the continum, Framework of Skills, Knowledge and Abilities for Beginning Teachers in California (Moir and Garmston, 1992), and has produced publications for assessing teacher growth and in support of classroom instruction, e.g., Keys to the Classroom, A Teacher's Guide to the First Month of School (Moran, Stobbe, Baron, Miller & Moir, 1992). The immediate clients for BTSA services are new teachers in the first and second years of their professional assignments, but the present year's activities also initiated efforts to provide linkages and continuity between the preservice teacher education program of the University of California, Santa Cruz (UCSC), and the ventures of the Santa Cruz County BTSA Project.

This year also, BTSA added an assessment component to their services, exploring how more formal assessment of teacher competencies might facilitate the support for the novice teachers' acquisition of program values, knowledge, and skills.

For BTSA, support of beginning teachers is intended not merely to place novices at ease, but also to encourage reflectivity, inquiry, and acquisition of shared professional standards (for example, see Little, 1990). Feiman-Nemser & Parker (1992) also describe the larger context of educational reform as the improvement of teaching by transforming professional relations. Current reform emphasizes the complexities of teaching that are less textbook-centered, reductionistic, and recitative, but instead are more student-centered, wholistic, and conversational. Many senior teachers, and certainly most beginning teachers, may not be prepared reform challenges that call for providing meaningful instruction and classrooms organized to enhance all students' opportunities to learn.

Proposals for educational reform and restructuring represent several major themes according to Newman (1993) including changes in teachers' professional relations as well as changes in students' learning experiences, school governance and accountability. According to Newman, responses to educational reform creating new organizational structures are insufficient for the task of improving education. Structural innovations may be necessary but he calls for them to provide activity guided by content, commitment, and competence. To improve education, innovative structures must offer activity across school communities which optimize opportunities for teachers and administrators to share perspectives, values, and forms of practice. Innovative structures have demonstrated their capacity to influence clusters of teachers in the direction of reform. School and system reform is more problematic particularly for issues of

linkage among program contexts and people affecting teachers. Innovative structures cohabiting without socially organized connections among school communities may see constraints encroach on their hard-won gains.

BTSA's experience is informative when considered as an innovative structure offering activity, support, and, this year, assessment. BTSA has been ambitious in providing content primarily in contexts of collegiality among BTSA support providers and school teachers, administrators, and instructional leaders. BTSA provides a case study for learning not only how teacher support and assessment work, but also the ways social organization influences activity and affects teaching practice .

Features of BTSA's social organization are helpful for discussing how the program operated. Over the year of data collection in this evaluation, we began to see how the program was organized to influence advisors perspectives and practices in relating to teachers. For teacher support, advisors emphasized personal relating and interaction more than record keeping. This reflected BTSA's collegial, non-judgmental approach to professional development. Teacher assessment was primarily through self-report, and through "in-flight" assessment--that is, assessment conducted in the process of providing ongoing support. Advisors were much more indirect and collegial in their support of teachers than anticipated when the original data collection plan was designed. The consistency of the role enactment among the advisors and the positive orientation of the teachers to the relationship indicated participants acted in response to expectations and norms in the program.

This meant the issue of professional relations emerged as an evaluation focus. Feiman-Nemser & Parker (1992) describe three perspectives on professional relations which have emerged from different role-contexts of mentoring. The first role is as <u>local guide,</u> in which mentors are invested in

making the new teacher comfortable in the new setting but have no long-term investment in their teaching performance. The second role is as educational companion, in which the mentor takes a long-term interest in the developing teacher's professional competence and developing rationales as bases for decision making. The third mentoring role is as agent of change, in which the mentor promotes collaboration, shared inquiry, and networking with colleagues. The change agent increases teachers' collegial contact, arranging peer observations, fostering conversations among teachers about their teaching, and building networks. The agent of change deconstructs schools' isolating "egg carton" organization to arrange conditions encouraging social interaction and joint activity among teachers. In this categorical system, though BTSA advisors attended to all three role values, they were above all change agents.

Overview of Program Evaluation/Assessment

In the proposal for this year's operations, we mentioned a variety of potential assessment sources, both for program evaluation and for determining the relationship between the program practices of support and assessment. These included, among others, learning plans, interactive journals, activity logs, teaching videotapes, student work samples, artifacts/evidences representing teachers' goals, checklists, rating scales, reviews and, for the second year teachers, professional projects. During this first year some of these assessment sources were discarded, postponed, or modified. For example, though the advisors' activity logs seemed promising records, logs were not in fact kept current, and their consequent unreliability limited their usefulness. The final selection of the assessment/evaluation data sources used in this report followed some clear criteria. The overarching, meta-criterion was that assessment/evaluation procedures should be commensurate with the operations of support, the

philosophy of the program, and the values of the program operators. As sub-criteria, several others logically followed.

A. Whenever possible, data were used that were the natural products of support services. That is, rather than construct additional or artificial assessment devices, whenever possible we collected the records of the advisors and teachers actual work products. The two "natural product" data sources of the highest quality were:

1. Novice teachers and their advisors completed an *Individual Learning Plan (ILP)* at the start of the academic year. ILPs identified strengths and weaknesses, and put forth a plan for assisting teacher development in one or more areas throughout the year.

2. The *interactive journals* provided a written dialogue between beginning teachers and their advisors. The journals were used in a variety of ways (e.g., to pose questions, reflect on daily classroom experiences, assess beginning teacher needs, provide assistance, etc.). This was an important method of advisor/teacher communication; we chose these journals as primary data because they are a window on the continuing assessment and responsible support provided by the program.

When the "natural product" criteria could not be met, as for example in the necessity to construct specific instruments for discovering program participants' beliefs and attitudes about teaching, the following criteria were adopted.

B. Data were selected according to criteria of high quality. That is, we should include data that were collected or produced *uniformly*, so that they would be comparable across subjects. The data should have been collected *systematically*, to insure our knowledge of the conditions under which they

were produced. And the data should be *unbiased*, that is, they should have been produced without being influenced by some purpose other than providing a true report.

C. Data were chosen for relevance. That is, we excluded data that were only "data-for-data's sake." We included data the analysis of which would illuminate *program operations*, or which would be relevant to program effects, or that would reveal something about the dynamic relationship between support and assessment. We included data that were requested uniformly by the State, to allow comparability of discovery across programs.

II.
Program Descriptive Data: Participants and Operations

A master list of project participants contains a total of 83 New Teachers served by the project in the 1993-1994 school year. The following cohort groups are included: 35 First year Elementary; 16 First year Middle and 7 First year High School; 17 Second year Elementary; 3 Second year Middle and 5 Second year High School.

Data from a state mandated demographic survey completed by participants in October 1993 was used to provide a clear picture of the general characteristics of new teachers served by the project. A total of 67 demographic surveys were filed with the project and serve as a data source for the following project demographics. Missing data were from new teachers that came into the project after the survey was taken in October 1993. In addition several participants did not identify themselves on the survey and some surveys remain unclaimed.

With respect to general characteristics of new teachers served by the project we find that over two thirds of both First and Second year teachers are female (see **Table 2.1** below). Over 50% of first year teachers are aged between 20 and 30 years old, while second year teachers are slightly older. The majority of both First and Second year teachers classified their ethnicity as "White."

Table 2.1. General characteristics of participants completing state demographic survey in October:

Characteristic	First Year Teachers (n =42)	Second Year Teachers (n= 25)
Gender	26% Male/74% Female	32% Male/68% Female
Age*	29% 20-25 years 29% 26-30 years 18% 31-35 years 20% 36-44 years 2% 45-54 years 2% 55+ years	12% 20-25 years 28% 26-30 years 16% 31-35 years 24% 36-44 years 20% 45-54 years Not applicable
Ethnicity	81% White/ 12% Hispanic 7% Other	84% White/ 8% Hispanic 8% Other

* 1 First year teacher did not respond

There was no difference in hiring status between First and Second year teachers with over 50% of participants completing the survey being hired on a temporary one year contract. Only one third of each cohort were probationary leading to a possible tenured contract (see **Table 2.2**).

Table 2.2. Hiring Status of participants:

Status	First Year Teachers	Second Year Teachers
Probationary	33%	36%
Temporary	55%	52%
Long-term Substitute	12%	41%
Intern	0	8%

In addition to gathering information on the hiring status of project participants, the state demographic survey asked participants to respond to a number of questions concerning their academic and professional background. The majority of new teachers served by the Santa Cruz project had received their B.A. degree from the University of California system (see **Table 2.3**) . The majority of both First and Second year teachers had received their B.A. degree within the last five years and the highest degree earned for both groups was a B.A./B.S. degree (**Table 2.4** and **2.5** respectively). However, approximately one third of Second year teachers had received an M.A./M.S. degree (**Table 2.4**)

Table 2.3. University where B.A. earned:

University	First Year Teachers	Second Year Teachers
California State	15%	20%
University of California	71%	64%
Private college	7%	0
Out of State	5%	12%
Out of Country	2%	4%

Table 2.4. Highest level of degree earned:

1st Year Teachers: 93% B.A/B.S.
5% M.A./M.S.
2% Other (Ed.D)

2nd Year Teachers: 72% B.A./B.S.
28% M.A./M.S.

Table 2.5. Time period since earning degree:

Time period	First Year Teachers	Second Year Teachers
Within 5 years	71%	44%
6 - 10 years	17%	28%
10 years plus	12%	28%

In response to their continuing academic and professional development, approximately two thirds of Second year teachers had completed a clear teaching credential in comparison to one third of First year teachers, a greater number of whom still retained a preliminary credential. Less than one third of project participants held an emergency credential for teaching (**Table 2.6**). Again, an indication of the proximity of U.C. Santa Cruz, the majority of these new teachers had received their preliminary and clear credentials from the University of California system (**Table 2.7**).

Table 2.6. Type of credential earned:

Credential	First Year Teachers	Second Year Teachers
Preliminary	31%	20%
Clear	26%	64%
Intern	0	4%
Emergency	19%	12%

Table 2.7. University where credential earned:

University	First Year Teachers*	Second Year Teachers
California State	27%	36%
University of California	59%	44%
Private College	12%	12%
Out of State	2%	8%

*1 First year teacher did not respond

3.0 DISTRIBUTION OF SUPPORT TO NEW TEACHERS

As a means of documenting the amount and type of interaction with the new teacher, all advisors to the project were instructed by the program administration to maintain a New Teacher-Advisor Log and an Administrator-Advisor Log. These instruments are supposed to have been completed by the advisor after each interaction with the new teacher. Each New Teacher-Advisor Log (Log) consists of two pages. The first indicates the amount of time spent by the advisor inside and outside the classroom supporting the new teacher and details the form and function of support given during that time period. Time spent by the advisor is referenced by the decimalization of the hour and the form of support given is referenced by use of a set of codes provided. Additional space remains for small notes to be made by the advisor on key issues and any desired or actual outcomes. Finally, space is provided to note any resources the advisor may have provided. The second page of the Log provides space for the advisor to give a fuller (typically 4 or 5 lines) account of the support given to the new teacher and any progress the new teacher has made. Each page allows for approximately one and a half months of advisor visits to be recorded. These visits take place on an agreed upon schedule between the advisor and the new teacher and range from one visit in a month to 8 visits in a month. In an attempt to report the amount and type of support provided by the advisors to project participants, the New Teacher-Advisor Logs were carefully evaluated. This evaluation was guided by the following questions:

1. What is the average amount of support given by advisors to beginning teachers?
2. How is the advisors' time spent supporting a new teacher? That is to say,, is advisor time spent mainly on issues of classroom management? Does this change with ongoing support during the

school year? What forms of support are rarely required by advisors to provide?

3. Do different cohorts receive different amounts and forms of support? Sub-questions to this domain include: Do Elementary and Middle school teachers require a different amount of support than High School teachers? Is the form of support given to Elementary teachers widely different from that given to Middle school teachers? Do First year Elementary teachers require more support than Second year Elementary teachers? Does the focus of support required by Second year Elementary, Middle or High school teachers differ from that necessary for a successful first year of teaching?
4. Does a specific style of advisor support emerge from working with a particular cohort group?

The rationale for such questions stems from the intuitive notion that although beginning teachers may vary in skill level and experience in the classroom, there may be certain forms of support that necessarily dominate the early development of any beginning teacher.

The Logs were the sole source of the data reported in this section, and the validity of the conclusions reached here are dependent on the accuracy and inter-advisor reliabilities concerning the uses of the Logs. In fact, many advisors did not keep the Logs current, and filled them in far after the events. The analyses herein must be interpreted with caution.

Method.

Subjects

The Logs from each advisor were collected and the monthly distribution and form of support calculated for 63 new teachers. In order to gain a clear and

consistent picture of the needs and responses between the new teacher and the advisor, individuals that did not begin to receive project support until October were eliminated (17 participants). In addition, the Logs of an advisor hired by the project in November 1993 were not reviewed. This left the Logs of 4 advisors and 46 new teachers under consideration:

(A) ADVISOR A- Responsible for First and Second Year Elementary Teachers (n = 12); (B) ADVISOR B - Responsible for First and Second Year Elementary and First and Second Year Middle School Teachers (n = 14); (C) ADVISOR C- Responsible for First Year Middle School Teachers (n = 8), and finally, (D) ADVISOR D - Responsible for First Year Middle and First and Second Year High School Teachers (n = 12).

In addition, the possible cohort groups investigated were First year Elementary teachers (n = 10); Second year Elementary teachers (n = 11); First year Middle School teachers (n = 13); Second year Middle School teachers (n = 3); First year High School teachers (n = 4), and finally, Second year High School teachers(n = 5).

It should be noted that this evaluation of these Logs is not intended to serve as a "time card" of advisor support and is not intended as a measure of advisor performance. It serves only as an indication of the distribution and form of support given to those individuals in the project from the beginning of the school year (end of August/beginning of September 1993) to the end of May 1994; a 10 month time period. Amount of support was expected to differ between individuals simply as a result of school schedules, for example, for those participants teaching in year round schools.

Procedure

For each advisor and each cohort group a database was established reflecting the total amount of time in hours spent each month over a ten month

time period. Further databases were generated directly from the Logs detailing the form of support given each month (in hours) using the following codes provided by the Logs themselves:(A) - Assessment; (AT) - Assisting the teacher either by individual help, a small group lesson, monitoring the class or preparing for the class; (CM) - Classroom management and classroom organization; (CF) - Conferencing; (C) - Coaching; (CD) - Curriculum Development; (DL) - Demonstration Lesson by Advisor; (ES) - Emotional Support; (IS) - Instructional strategies; (LP)- Lesson Planning; (O) - Observing; (P) - Principal contact; (PH) - Phone contact; (PR) - Providing resources; (PC) - Parent Contact; (SP) - School Procedures; (SMK) - Subject Matter Knowledge; (WC) - Written Communication, and finally, (X)- Xeroxing.

In order to facilitate coding of data contained within the Logs, several codes were collapsed including that of Classroom Management and Classroom Organization and also all dated coded Assisting the teacher in the classroom(normally broken down by advisors to the four specific forms of assistance provided) to provide the above "short" coding list (CM and AT respectively).

All databases created were divided by the respective number of participants to establish the average number of hours for each administration of support.

Results

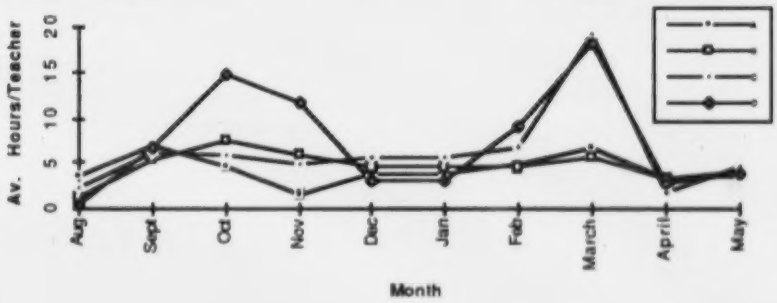
Amount of Support to New Teachers

Figure 3.1 illustrates the average hours of support provided by each advisor over a ten month time period. Advisors, in general, begin the year with a similar number of hours (0 to 4 hours) establishing working relationships with project participants. Differences in time spent in this month are due to the fact that some advisors support teachers located in year-round schools and that

schools in different school districts have different start dates for the school year. In general, advisors appear to increase hours of support to approximately 4.5 to 6.5 hours in September and for the most part, Advisors A and B are consistent in time spent supporting teachers during the school year. Advisors C and D however, have a strikingly different pattern of support. Advisor C provides support at a consistent level until March when there is an enormous increase in support hours recorded: three times as many hours as that spent in the previous month. Advisor D follows another pathway. In October alone there is an average of an additional 7 hours per teacher in comparison to Advisors A, B and C. This level of increased support is continued in November.

All advisors reduce the number of hours of support in December and January, particularly to those individuals that are "off-track" in year-round schools. While Advisor A and B maintain support in February, Advisor C and D begin to increase support reaching the highest level of support given for the ten month time period in March. Support level drops in April before rising slightly again in May.

Figure 3.1 Monthly Breakout of Advisor Support Hours



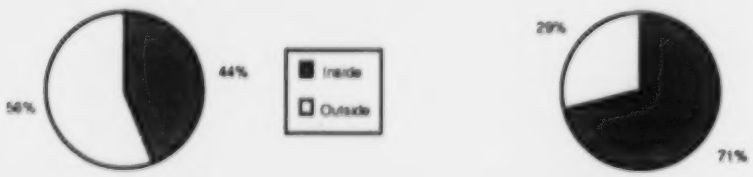
The question then arises: what happens in October and March that promotes such an increase in support level especially for Advisors C and D? Both advisors service First year Middle and First and Second year High School. Can it be that these cohort groups exert a bigger demand on advisor time in these

months? Is this increase in support an artifact of advisor style of support? Answers to these questions may be found by examining more closely any differences that exist between cohort groups and the specific forms of support that the advisor provides.

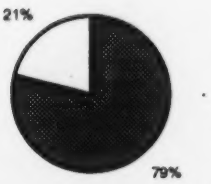
3.2.2 Examining Forms of Support Provided.

Having established the average amount of support by each advisor, it is now necessary to examine how that time is broken down. **Fig 3.2** highlights the breakdown of advisor time in a ten month time period into the time recorded by the advisor as having been spent inside the classroom and as time spent outside the classroom. Time spent inside the classroom was usually coded by advisors as observing (OB), assisting (AT) or providing a demonstration lesson (DL). Time spent outside the classroom was typically noted as time spent conferencing (CF), on curriculum development (CD) or discussing instructional strategies (IS), providing emotional support (ES) or reflecting on classroom management (CM). Time spent outside the classroom was also noted for seminars and release days. For example, observing a veteran teacher was coded as time spent outside the classroom.

Figure 3.2 Breakout of Support Time Inside & Outside the Classroom



Advisor A Advisor B



Advisor C

Advisor D

Advisor A spent roughly the same percentage of time inside as outside the classroom over the ten month period. Advisors B, C and D all spent over two thirds of support time outside the classroom as opposed to Advisor A. Since scheduling of advisor visits is negotiated between the advisor and the new teacher, it is very difficult to distinguish if any differences in how support time is spent is due to advisor style or cohort demand (for example, for Middle and High School teachers that may teach in several classrooms during the day, it may be easier to meet with the advisor after school and therefore an advisor serving this population may automatically generate increased outside the classroom support time as a direct consequence).

Clearly there is a difference in the level of support provided by Advisor C and D when compared to Advisor A and B (**Fig. 3.1**). Since Advisor A and B serve mainly First and Second year Elementary teachers and C and D service First year Middle and First and Second year High School, some of the difference may be attributed to the different cohort groups. Having examined the frequency of support by advisor, Logs for identifiable cohort groups were now examined. This resulted in creating new databases for each teaching level from the Logs of several advisors. In the case of Second year Elementary teachers, half were serviced by Advisor A and half by Advisor B. In the case of First year High School teachers all were serviced by Advisor D.

As expected, analyzing the average hours per teacher spent by the advisor for each group revealed data consistent with **Fig.3.1**.

Fig. 3.3, 3.4 and **3.5** indicate the different cohort years in comparison. Consistent throughout all groups is an increase in support at two times in the year. For Elementary teachers, these increased support "peaks" are September and March. For Middle and High School, these peak support times are October and March.

When First and Second year Elementary teachers are compared for the ten month time period (**Fig. 3.3**), a similar support pattern emerges. Support typically averages around 4 to 8 hours per month. Both First and Second year teachers reflect the same highs and lows of support, with First year Elementary receiving slightly more support than Second year Elementary.

In comparison, First and Second year Middle School (**Fig. 3.4**) receive on average a greater range of advisor support (average 5 to 19 hours). Both First and Second year emerge with a similar support pattern. They start off low in August increasing to a high in October (the first support peak) then falling to a low in December then increasing to a high in March (second support peak) before dipping in April to rise slightly in May at the end of the evaluation period. Whereas, First year Elementary reflected the support peaks at both times in **Fig. 3.3**, in the case of Middle School teachers it appears that Second year Middle School received increased support in October while First year Middle School received it in March.

Figure 3.3 Monthly Breakout of Support Hours by Elementary Cohort

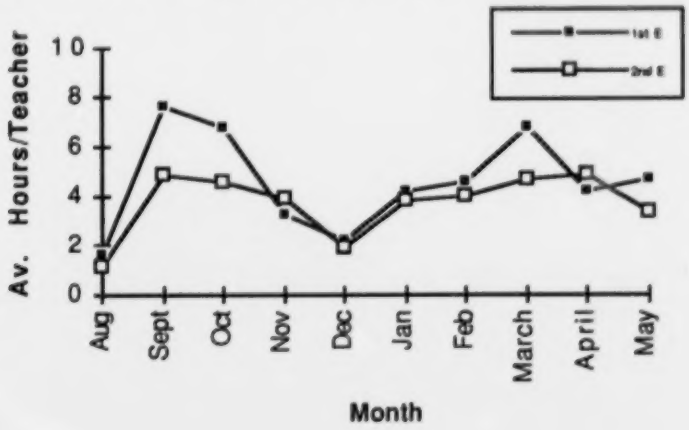


Figure 3.4 Monthly Breakout of Support Hours by Middle School

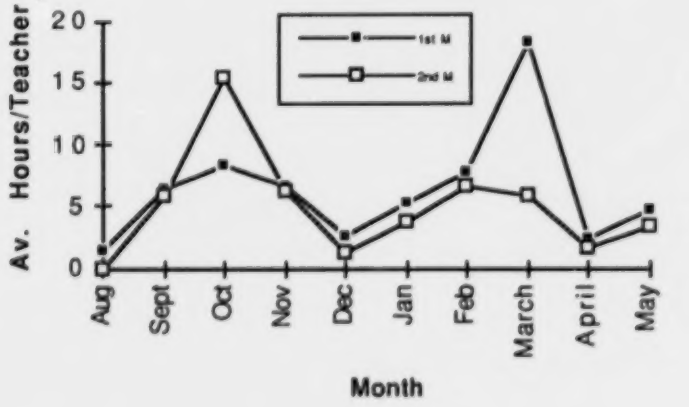
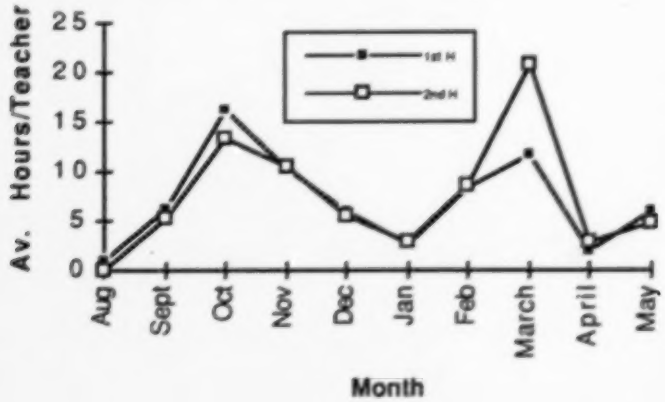


Figure 3.5 Monthly Breakout of Support Hours by High School



When these two groups are compared to High School teachers **(Fig. 3.5)** we find a similar pattern of support for High as for Middle School. High School teachers start off with low levels of support in August, increasing to a peak in October, falling this time in January, not December as with Middle and Elementary levels, then increasing to another peak in March, dipping in April before rising again at the end of the school year. While both First and Second year High School teachers indicate an increase in support in October, a greater increase is shown for Second year High School than First year in March. Both Middle and High School teachers average 5 to 19 hours compared to Elementary School's average of 4 to 8 hours.

3.2.4 Specific Support At Each Teaching Level.

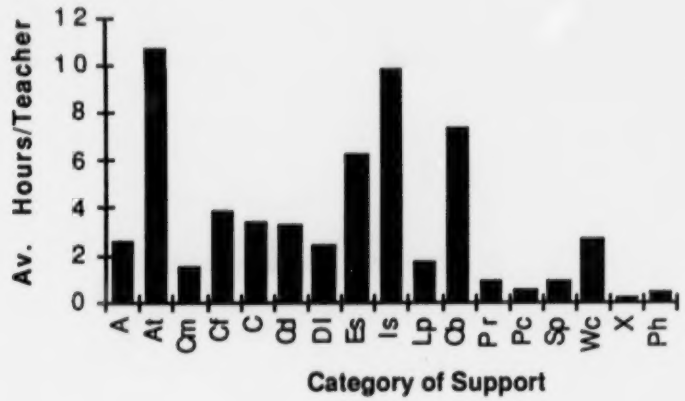
Having examined the different teaching levels with respect to quantity of support received, it is valuable to examine each group with respect to the type of support received. In **Fig. 3.6** to **3.11**, the types of support are indicated as follows: (A) - Assessment; (AT) Assisting the teacher either by individual help, a small group lesson, monitoring the class or preparing for the class; (CM) - Classroom management and classroom organization; (CF) - Conferencing; (C) - Coaching; (CD) - Curriculum Development; (DL) - Demonstration Lesson by Advisor; (ES) -

Emotional Support; (IS) - Instructional strategies; (LP)- Lesson Planning; (O) - Observing; (P) - Principal contact; (PH) - Phone contact; (PR) - Providing resources; (PC) - Parent Contact; (SP) - School Procedures; (SMK) - Subject Matter Knowledge; (WC) - Written Communication, and finally, (X)- Xeroxing.

a) First and Second Year Elementary.

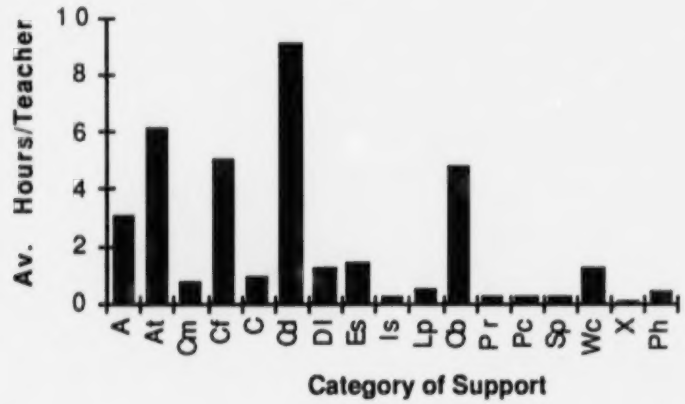
Comparing First **(Fig. 3.6)** and Second year Elementary **(Fig. 3.7)**, it can be seen that differences in the form of support received do exist. The three most common forms of support received by First year Elementary teachers over the ten month period are assisting in the classroom (AT), instructional strategies (IS), followed by observation by advisor (OB). As can be seen from **Fig. 3.6**, assisting in the classroom support averaged 10.7 hours per teacher per ten month period. When this is compared to Second year Elementary teachers **(Fig. 3.7)**, assisting in the classroom drops to 6.1 hours per teacher, while curriculum development (CD) becomes the focal point of support for Second year teachers. The top three most common forms of support for Second year teachers are then curriculum development (CD), assisting in the classroom (AT) with observation (OB) and conferencing (CF) closely tied for third place. In fact, First year Elementary teachers average 4.6 hours more hours of classroom assistance (AT) than Second year teachers; whereas, Second year Elementary average 5.9 more hours of curriculum development. First year Elementary teachers are observed slightly more on average per teacher than Second year teachers (2.5 hours per teacher over a ten month period). However, advisors conference with Second year teachers to a greater degree than with First year Elementary teachers.

Figure 3.6 Frequency of Support Category - 1st Year Elementary



Note: Data taken over a 10 month time period

Figure 3.7 Frequency of Support Category - 2nd Year Elementary

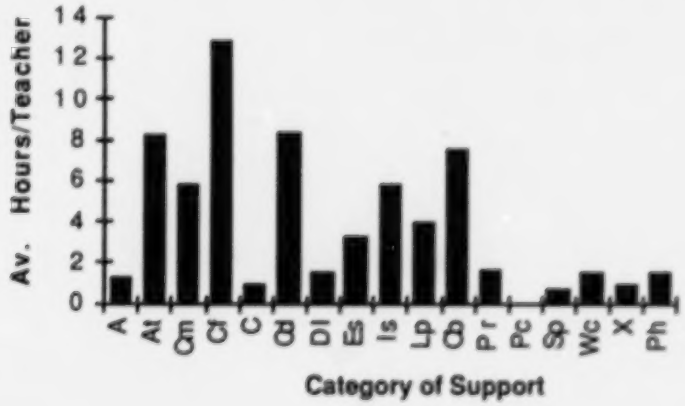


Note: Data taken over a 10 month time period

These differences in forms of support may be part of a developmental pattern of a beginning teacher. First year Elementary teachers require a large amount of assistance in the classroom - advisors support them by helping them prepare materials for classroom use and by working with small groups of children. By spending time in the classroom, the advisor also gets an opportunity

to observe these First year teachers in action and provide them with support having assessed their needs. Given this scenario, Second year teachers having worked with an advisor for a year, can now focus attention on developing and broadening their curriculum. Advisors still assist in the classroom and continue to receive opportunities to observe teachers in action. Rationale can also be provided for the drop in emotional support (ES), coaching (C) and demonstration lessons (DL) between First and Second year teachers. First year teachers may require more of these forms of support by virtue of the fact that modeling and positive encouragement by the advisor may help stabilize the often stressful first year of teaching. Second year teachers, having "acclimatized" to the pressures of teaching may require less of these support types.

Figure 3.8 Frequency of Support Category - 1st Year Middle School



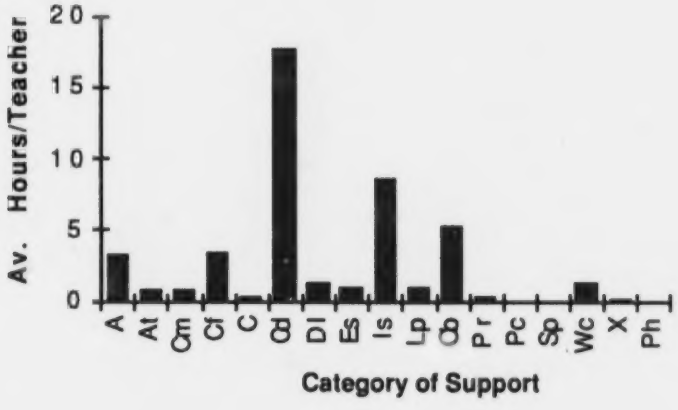
Note: Data taken over a 10 month time period

b) First and Second Year Middle School

Before engaging in any comparison of First and Second year Middle School, it must be remembered that the Second year Middle School sample only contained three participants; such a small sample may not be fully reflective of this teaching level. For First year Middle School teachers (**Fig. 3.8**), the top three forms of support were conferencing (CF), curriculum development(CD) and

assisting in the classroom (AT), this latter category was matched by observation by the advisor (OB). Second year teachers (**Fig. 3.9**) received support in the following order: curriculum development (CD),instructional strategies (IS) and observation (OB). As with First and Second year Elementary groups, the level of classroom assistance dropped between the First and Second year. This was also the case with classroom management (CM), coaching (C) and emotional support (ES). Both First and Second year Middle School were comparable to First and Second year Elementary in amount of support time as a whole. First year Middle School in general receive more help in all forms of support coded than Second year Middle School. This is consistent with the scenario of a developing teacher as portrayed with First and Second year Elementary.

Figure 3.9 Frequency of Support Category - 2nd Year Middle School



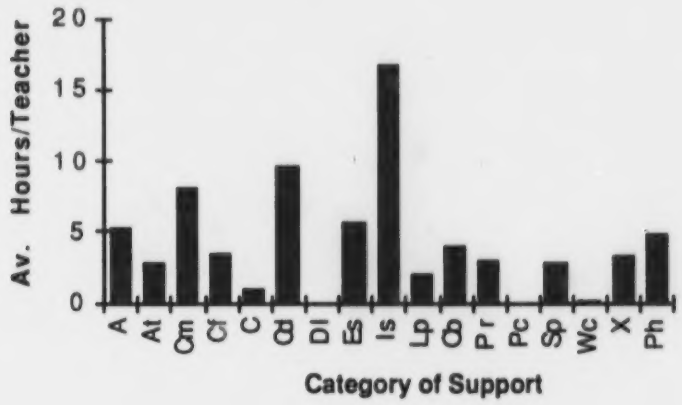
Note: Data taken over a 10 month time period

c) Comparing Middle to Elementary School.

We have noted that in terms of observation (OB), both teaching levels are comparable averaging 6 hours per teacher over the ten month time period. However, certain distinctions can be made. Middle school teachers appear to receive more conferencing (CF) with the advisor than Elementary teachers and in particular receive twice as many hours of support in classroom management

(CM) than Elementary teachers. Elementary teachers however, do receive more emotional support (ES) on the whole than Middle School teachers. Middle School teachers also receive more communication by telephone (PH) but less time is coded as spent on written communication (WC). Surprisingly, they receive more resources than Elementary teachers, particularly more Xeroxed materials (X).

Figure 3.10 Frequency of Support Category - 1st Year High School

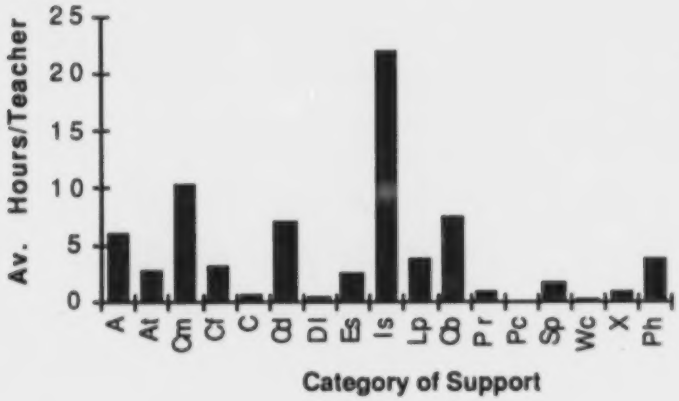


Note: Data taken over a 10 month time period

d) First and Second Year High School.

First and Second year High School teachers are surprisingly similar with respect to the three most common forms of support received. First year teachers (**Fig. 3.10**) receive mainly support on instructional strategies (IS), followed by curriculum development (CD) then classroom management (CM), while Second year teachers (**Fig.3.11**) again, receive most support on instructional strategies (IS), then classroom management (CM), then followed by observation (OB) and curriculum development (CD). The two are closely aligned in terms of assessment (A), conferencing (CF), assisting (AT) and coaching (C). This alignment may not only be due to the demand for these types of support from this teaching level but as a result of advisor style as both years are serviced by the same advisor.

Figure 3.11 Frequency of Support Category - 2nd Year High School



Note: Data taken over a 10 month time period

e) Comparing Middle to High School.

High School teachers as a group received more support on classroom management (CM) and instructional strategies (IS). Awareness of school procedures (SP) also increases greatly between the two cohorts. While conferencing (CF) and written communication (WC) are reduced, other forms of communication such as telephone calls (PH) are three times as high as for Middle School teachers. First year High School teachers in particular received three times as much Xeroxed (X) material and other resources (PR) than Middle School teachers. High School teachers also receive more support on assessment (A).

Between all three teaching levels, two findings are consistent: first there is a reduction in emotional support (ES) between First and Second year in all groups and second, all groups receive a similar number of hours on observation (OB).

3.2.5 Examining Peak Support.

We have illustrated (**Fig. 3.1**) that for Advisors C and D there are two points in the school year in which support is greatly increased. These two points also coincide with the support patterns shown in **Fig. 3.3, 3.4** and **3.5**. We have also compared each cohort group with respect to the highest form of support

received and found that for First year Elementary teachers assisting in the classroom (AT) was the highest, for Second year Elementary teachers, curriculum development (CD) was the highest; for First year Middle School teachers conferencing (CF) was the highest; for Second year Middle School teachers curriculum development (CD) was the highest and for First and Second year High School teachers, instructional strategies (IS) was the highest. The question remains: does the highest form of support received account for the large increases in advisor support at the two time periods for each teaching level. If the support pathway of the highest form of support peaks in the noted time spots it may indicate that these months are critical points for specific support. This would be a useful finding in terms of scheduling advisor support and seminar topics that meet the needs of the particular teaching level at that time.

For each teaching level the monthly distribution of the highest form of support was charted. The record of advisor support (**Fig. 3.1**) and the breakout of monthly support for Elementary teachers (**Fig. 3.3**) indicates that September and March/April were the two time periods where advisor support rose dramatically. Charting the monthly distribution for First year teachers (**Fig. 3.12**), we find that the support pathway for assisting in the classroom (AT) also increases in these two months. In fact, this pattern matches that of total support in general shown in **Fig. 3.3**. For Second year teachers, curriculum development (CD)was the highest form of support and **Fig. 3.13** again highlights the same highs in September and April.

Figure 3.12 Average Time Assisting - 1st Year Elementary

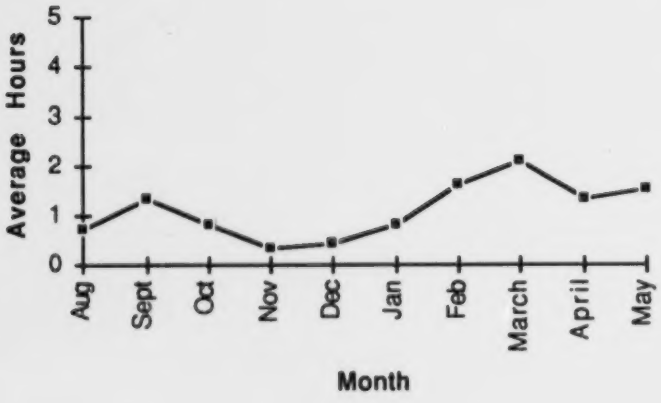
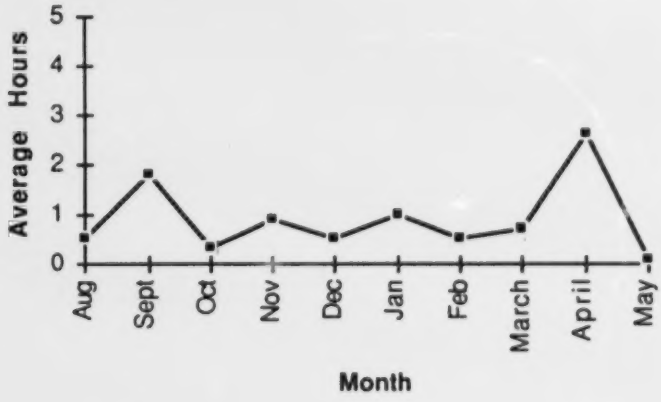


Figure 3.13 Average Time Curriculum Development - 2nd Year Elementary



For First year Middle School, charting the monthly distribution of conferencing (CF) support does not present as clear a picture (**Fig. 3.14**). While a large increase in support exists in March, the October rise is not seen. The support peaks are present in October and March for Second year Middle School for curriculum development (CD) in **Fig. 3.15**. This is similar to the pathway for total support shown for this cohort group in **Fig. 3.4**. The increase in support

shown in **Fig. 3.5** is not indicated by a similar increase in instructional strategies, the highest form of support given to First and Second year High School teachers (**Fig. 3.16** and **3.17** respectively). While the support for instructional strategies does reflect an increase in March, it does not demonstrate the initial peak in October.

Figure 3.14 Average Time Conferencing - 1st Year Middle

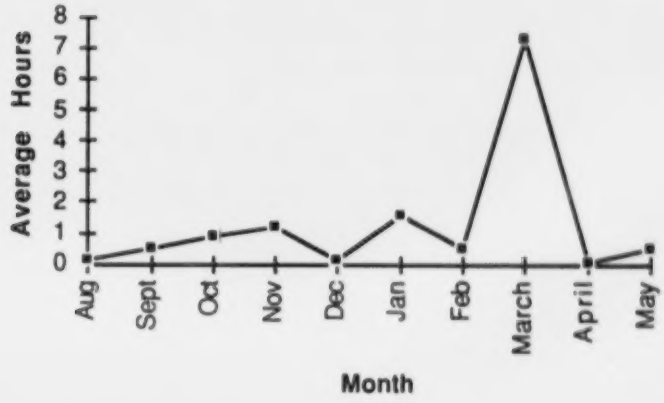


Figure 3.15 Average Time Curriculum Development - 2nd Year Middle

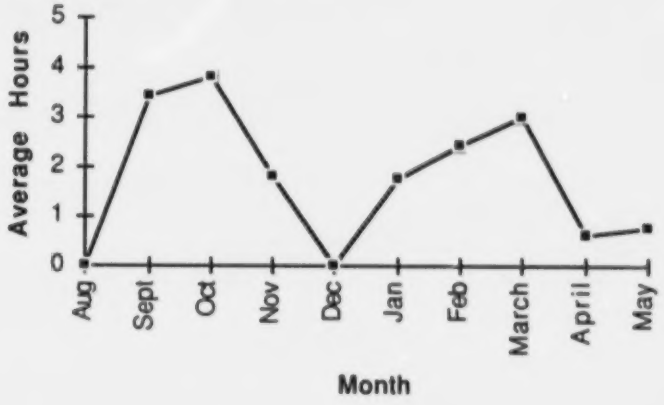


Figure 3.16 Average Time Instructional Strategies - 1st Year High School

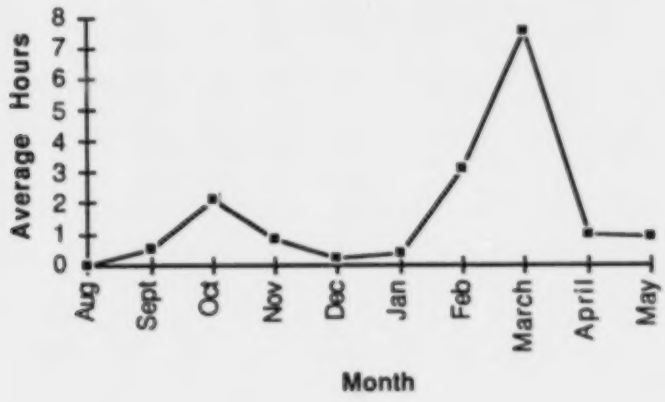
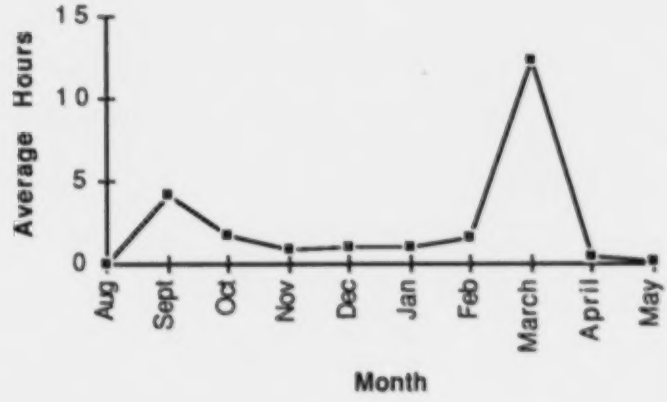


Figure 3.17 Average Time Instructional Strategies - 2nd Year High School



When the average hours of support by each advisor are examined (**Fig. 3.1**), we find two peaks of support. These support peaks are demonstrated most clearly by Advisor D in the months of October and March. It is clear that when we examine the average hours of support for each cohort, we find support peaks, again one in September/ October, the other in March /April. Finally, when we

examine the monthly distribution of the form of support that it given in the largest quantities, we again find large increases at these particular time periods. In particular, the month of March can be observed as commanding dramatic increases in support.

What causes these sudden large increases in support? Possible clues lie within a discussion of the fourth question we posed, addressing specific styles of support and in looking closely at characteristics of the Log document itself.

Discussion of Advisor Style and Log Use.

At the present time, the New Teacher-Advisor Log serves as an instrument which details both the number of hours of support and the form that support has taken. This information is contained on the first page of the Log itself and all evaluative data has utilized the time recorded by the advisor and the coded form of support as a source of information. The Logs, as previously stated, do contain other records of advisor visits - anecdotal records that are intended to be an expansion of the simple codes used. However, if, as in the example from the Log of Advisor C excerpted below, the coded support forms and the narrative anecdotal "expansion" do not contain the same information, then it would indicate that, at the very least, advisors do not make full use of the present coding system. This would lead to an inaccuracy in the tabulation of certain forms of support, reducing their importance, and presenting a seriously inaccurate picture of the needs of a beginning teacher.

Advisor C: 9.9.94: Key issues - CD/IS/LP. Began working out daily schedule and long term plans. Changed seating arrangement for focus and proximity for CM. Worked on curriculum.

Another clear example of "non-coding" is the use of the coding category "providing resources" (PR). While this code is utilized, a large number of

occasions are not coded as space also exists on the first Log page to note resources provided. Therefore, an advisor may use this space to detail resources provided and not use the code (PR) and so the event failed to be tabulated for this evaluation. The situation is further complicated by the coding category "Xeroxing" (X) which is also providing a resource. From an examination of the Logs, it is apparent that coding for providing of resources does not represent the full extent of all resources provided to participants. This point is reinforced by noting the highest form of support of cohort groups such as Second year Elementary or Second year Middle School. It may be expected that since advisors were supporting curriculum development so strongly in these groups, that an increase in providing resources would also be seen. However, this is not the case as we have seen, when the coded portion of the Log is used to represent support provided (**Fig. 3.7** and **3.9**). The anecdotal record however, does reflect the focus on curriculum development and the resources provided by the advisor. Also, in Mid-Year and End-of-Year evaluations (see **4.1** and **4.2** respectively), a large percentage of participants responded by selecting provision of materials and ideas by their advisors as the most effective means of assistance.

We have sought to explain the support peaks present in **Fig. 3.1** and **Fig. 3.3**, **3.4** and **3.5** by focusing on the highest form of support. Examining the codings of the Logs for the particular peak months, we find that these peak months usually contain seminar and release days, e.g., a Diversity seminar in March. Large numbers of hours are attributed to these seminars and at present, variability exists in the coding of these seminars. Due to the hours involved, this can greatly influence the total hours of support for that month and also the form of support which appears to have increased dramatically in that month. For example, Advisor D codes seminars as instructional strategies (IS) which may account for the large amount of support given to First and Second year High

School (**Fig. 3.10** and **3.11**).

We have noted the relatively low levels of classroom management (CM) recorded for both First and Second year Elementary in comparison with First and Second year Middle and High School. Given that issues surrounding classroom management are common in the First year of teaching and that references abound in the second page narrative of the Log, then it would appear that the variability between the cohort groups reflects the non -coding of this form of support.

Findings also appear to indicate that variability exists with respect to the amount and form of support given by each advisor. While the possibility remains that certain cohort groups favor certain forms of support, no conclusion can be reached because great variability exists in advisor use of the present coding system.

The principal problem with the New Teacher-Advisor Log is that the coding system utilizes coding categories that are not exclusive and therefore judgment on which code to use is left to the individual advisor. All the advisors have years of teaching experience and throughout the Logs exhibit a wealth of teaching knowledge. However, using the present coding system, variability in coding will result no matter how strong the advisor's knowledge of teaching is. To a large extent, training in use of the codes for all advisors would help reduce the problem. However, faced with the complexity and uniqueness of the problems and concerns of many beginning teachers, one advisor may interpret a situation differently from another. If this occurs repeatedly an advisor "style" of support apparently develops. What appears to reflect a certain *style of support*, for example, Advisor D in support of First and Second year High School and the finding that this cohort group has more support on instructional strategies, is in fact a *style of advisor coding*. Other advisors appear based on narrative

accompaniments to interpret similar situations as conferencing (CF) or curriculum development (CD).

Precisely because the codes are not exclusive and an advisor can both conference (CF) and provide support for instructional strategies (IS), is a problem with the present coding system. It would be up to the individual advisor to decide to code the situation as conferencing or as instructional strategies. In real life, the situation may not always be as clear cut as the above example.

Two of the most common instances of variability in advisor coding exists between Advisor B and Advisor D for the coding category "assessment" (A) and between Advisor A and Advisor B for the coding category "curriculum development" (CD) and "lesson planning" (LP).

An example will be used to highlight the different use of assessment code (A) between Advisor B and D.

Advisor B: 5.10.94: Key issues - A. Looked at samples of student work.

Advisor D: 1.27.94: Key issues - A. Teacher is not able to change instructional strategies.

Advisor B consistently uses (A) to code situations involving student work, for example, report cards and curriculum assessment. Advisor D, on the other hand, uses (A) every time she observes and it represents an assessment of the beginning teachers skill level and needs.

The second case is again, Advisor B, who codes situations similar in nature to what Advisor A codes as lesson plans (LP), as "curriculum development" (CD). As the present system is referenced through the time spent on support, over time it appears that the advisors provide different forms of support but they may in fact be coding identical situations.

Advisor B: 8.31.94: Key issues - CD. Planned Writers Workshop.

Advisor A: 10.13.94: Key issues - LP. Writers Workshop.

The present coding system also confuses the form of support given and the function of that support. For example, a form of support may be the medium through which support is given such as a telephone call or it can be solely focused on the function of that support, for example, to provide emotional support. Since codes are presently referenced by time spent, a phone call on classroom management has to be allocated a portion of time to both coding categories in order for them to be tabulated and evaluated correctly.

Recommendations

Since the present coding system does not accurately represent the support provided, it can be concluded that it does not serve its intended function. Therefore, certain recommendations can be made as to the future documentation of advisor support.

1. Training for all advisors in documenting support.

2. Evaluate the consequences of referencing support in hours. What purpose does it serve the project? If it is simply to quantify support provided over a given period of time then the possibility of recording the frequency of a given support exists. This may be in the form of a checklist where support is represented by appropriate codes and the advisor simply marks each occurrence of the particular support. Frequency of support can rapidly be tabulated.

3. Develop a working coding system that reflects advisor agreement. At present some codes are rarely, if ever used, for example, subject matter knowledge (SMK) or equally some codes such as assisting (A) are frequently used. However, is it necessary to know whether the assistance was in the form of working with a small group or monitoring the class? To what extent does this specific knowledge benefit the project? Development of a coding system representative of the forms of support that advisors readily use with clear descriptions and explanations for use would help reduce variability between

advisors with respect to coding and an accurate picture of support provided may be revealed.

4. At the present time the Log contains both coded and narrative information. This information can clearly be maintained for present purposes on a one page document. The second page often reads as a personal journal or diary. It was not used as a data source for this evaluation simply because it did not contain enough codable data to allow comparison between advisor and cohort groups. It also appears that advisors keep their own copious notes and maintain interactive journals with participants. The Log, and in particular the narrative portion of the document, is another burden on advisor time - reducing the narrative portion would at least ease this burden.

In summary, the present New Teacher-Advisor Log does not present an accurate picture of support provided by the program advisors. The nature of the present document and extensive variability in advisor coding has revealed events which at the present time cannot be conclusively answered. Recommendations for assessing project support include developing new document forms and refining categories of coding. In essence, any future documentation must be preceded by developing a set of questions concerning support that will guide the purpose and form of the document itself.

III
Project Evaluation by Participants

Among the most valuable forms of information useful to assessing project effectiveness is the judgment of the clients themselves, the new teachers. Project participants were given two opportunities to reflect on overall project characteristics in addition to providing more immediate feedback to advisors at the end of each seminar or workshop attended.

These two occasions for participant feedback serve as promising data source for future project improvement. Principally, the message emerging from both evaluation periods is one of harmony between the aims of the project and goals of the participants. In particular, in both the first (Mid-Year Evaluations) and second (End-of -Year Evaluations) response periods, the supportive presence of the advisor was seen as most beneficial. Participants would often remark, "She was always supportive and listened to my needs and concerns. I really appreciated how she let me come up with my own solutions.", and in a similar vein, "she was a fantastic leader and a hands-on expert for me."

Mid-Year and End-of-Year Evaluations from First and Second year teachers were collected and responses by participants coded as a frequency. The similarity of responses in most cases led to clearly identifiable categories of coding.

Mid-Year Evaluations.

The Mid-Year evaluations served as the first opportunity for project participants to provide feedback on a greater scale than simple evaluations after each seminar. Taken in January 1994, the Mid-Year evaluations were completed by a total of 27 First year and 16 Second year teachers out of a possible 83 participants. Mid- Year evaluations comprised of four questions concerning advisor and program effectiveness.

Question 1: Describe the ways in which your advisor has been most effective in helping you.

First year teachers responded by highlighting the effectiveness of the feedback they received from their advisor (40%). In particular, feedback after an observation by the advisor was considered most effective. In the same vein, constructive feedback from the advisor was closely followed by discussion or "reflective conversations" with the advisor (30%). Clearly, maintaining open lines of communication between advisor and new teacher are critical to the establishment of the working relationship. Discussion with the advisor was also matched in frequency of responses by the provision of materials and ideas by the advisor (30%).

No First year teacher recorded the interactive journal as a way of increasing advisor effectiveness. However, this was not the case with Second year teachers. Although only a minority (12.5%), several individuals did rate the interactive journal as a form of effective support. Again, in converse to First year teacher response to the value of feedback, Second year teachers listed feedback at a much lower rate than First year teachers (12.5% compared to 40%). Second year teachers appeared to value discussion with the advisor (25%) and the majority perceived the advisor was most effective in providing them with materials and ideas for their classrooms (50%).

Question 2: How could your advisor increase her effectiveness with you?

Again we find a striking difference in response to this question: For First year teachers, only 26% cited that there could be "no improvement" in advisor effectiveness whereas almost twice the number of Second year teachers responded in this fashion (50%). Only 11% of First year teachers felt that their advisor could increase her effectiveness by providing more ideas and materials whereas none of the Second year teachers cited this improvement. Second year

teachers were split into two camps: one claiming there could be no improvement and the other stating that the advisor could increase her effectiveness by arranging more meetings with them and by observing them to a greater degree (50%). However, only 17% of First year teachers advocated this increase in effectiveness.

Question 3: What do you value about the relationship between the advisor and yourself?

The clear winner for both First and Second year teachers was an advisor who was seen as a friend: "She is a genuine friend and a very compassionate person." (37% and 38% respectively). This response was matched for Second year teachers (38%) who valued the non-judgmental stance of the advisor: "She is completely non-judgmental", "I feel like I could tell her anything." For First year teachers (26%), this perception of non-judgment by the advisor was also seen as critical. In addition, 26% of First year teachers and 18% of Second year teachers cited the "honesty" of the advisor as most valuable. Finally, 11% of First year teachers and 6% of Second year teachers valued the recognition and validation that the advisor gave them as a "professional."

Question 4: How have the seminars and release days been of value to you? Do you have any suggestions for improvement?

The question reference now switched in content from focusing on the advisor to focusing on the program seminars and release days. While seminars were praised as valuable for the exposure to new ideas for both First (46%) and Second (69%) year teachers, many made mention of the fact that it was at seminars and release days that they gained an opportunity to network and share ideas with other beginning teachers. Almost twice as many First year teachers (35%) as compared to Second year teachers (18.5%) mentioned this networking aspect. Finally, 19% of First year teachers and 12.5% of Second year teachers

listed release days where they had visited a classroom and observed a veteran teacher as particularly helpful. Participants responded to this question without explicitly stating any improvements that they would recommend, but by making mention of these aspects of seminar and release days implications for program improvements were implicitly recorded.

End-Of-Year Evaluations.

At the end of May 1994, new teachers were given the opportunity to answer some general questions about their perceptions of the project and the support they had received. These questions were of a similar nature to those completed by the new teachers in January of 1994 (Mid-Year Evaluations). From a potential pool of 58 First year teachers and a pool of 25 Second year teachers, a total of 63 completed evaluations were collected (38 First year and 19 Second year). In addition, a number of new teachers were asked to complete an additional one page survey outlining any improvements they would make to the project (n=18). It should be noted that survey questions in the End-of -Year evaluations were not identical to the Mid-Year evaluation questions and while some questions were not wholly dissimilar and engendered like responses in many cases, since the form of the question and/or content reference was not identical, it would not be psychometrically valid to compare Mid and End-of-Year responses.

Question 1. Comment on the ways the New Teacher Project has assisted you in your growth this year.

First year responses to this question revealed that the majority (45%) of new teacher's perceived practical help such as assisting in the classroom by the advisor and ideas and materials provided by the advisor for curriculum development as most beneficial. This correlates strongly with the finding from the New Teacher-Advisor Logs that for First year Elementary teachers in

particular, assisting in the classroom (**AT**) was the greatest amount of support provided (see **Table 4.2.1** below). Clearly, this type of support was valued by the recipients. Since a large percentage (38%) of End-of-year responses were made up from First year Elementary teachers, it is not surprising that this response trend emerges in the project evaluations.

Table 4.2.1 End-of-Year Responses: Question 1.

First Year Teacher Responses	Second Year Teacher Responses
Support & Encouragement 37%	Feedback 5%
Practical help/ Ideas & Materials..45%	Advisor..... 42%
Feedback and Observations.....5%	Expertise/Information/Materials..21%
Advisor.....5%	Observations of Veteran Teachers..11%
"Horizontal Growth".....5%	Maintains a Focus.....21%
Modeling.....2.6%	

Second year responses were much more succinct and the majority (42%) simply stated that the supportive presence of an advisor had assisted them the most (**Table 4.2.1**). Second year responses in general revealed a much more focused, concise image of the support they had gained from the project. Many (21%) mentioned that participating in the project had helped them retain a "focus on my goals and objectives for the year." Increasingly, Second year teachers appeared to welcome the opportunity to observe other veteran teachers in action **(Table 4.2.1)**

Question 2. What has been most valuable about the relationship with your advisor?

Similar to question 3 in the Mid-year evaluations, teachers were again asked to comment on what was most valuable in their relationship with their advisor (**Table 4.2.2**). Responses by both First and Second year teachers were identical with the exception of one extra coding category in Second year teacher responses in which participant responses were recorded as "someone who can provide hands on help."

For First year teachers however, all cohort groups perceived their advisor as a "friend." Typically responses included, "I feel like she is a friend as well as an advisor", "she is there to help and support rather than evaluate and find fault." This was followed by the perception of their advisor as "someone who gives me positive encouragement" (21%), "she is a source of constant encouragement and support.", "she always had a positive stroke or good word - even when I felt a lesson or strategy really bombed."

While responses by Second year teachers fell into a broader distribution than that of First year teachers (**Table 4.2.2**), comments again revealed the perception of the advisor as a "friend." Second year teachers also increasingly commented on the advisor role as "someone who recognizes and validates me as a teacher." As Second year teachers become more confident of their growing teaching skills, obviously the need for recognition as a professional develops.

As a whole, both First and Second year teacher responses revealed the warmth and "human side" of an advisor. Advisors to the project are valued more for their ability to create a trusting relationship with the new teacher than for their ability to assess and evaluate participant teaching skills. In fact, in both Mid and End-of-Year evaluations there was a noticeable absence of responses that recorded the advisor's ability to assess the new teacher's needs and teaching level as valuable.

Table 4.2.2 End-of-year evaluations: Question 2.

First Year Teacher Responses	Second Year Teacher Responses

A friend who is open and caring and can turn to at any time.....42%	A friend who is open and caring and can turn to at any time.....21%
Someone who recognizes and validates me as a teacher..... .....5%	Someone who recognizes and validates me as a teacher.....10%
Someone who gives me constructive feedback.....16%	Someone who gives me constructive feedback.....16%
Someone who gives me positive encouragement.....21%	Someone who gives me positive encouragement.....16%
Someone who provides materials and ideas / expertise.....8%	Someone who provides materials and ideas / expertise.....16%
Someone who is flexible.....8%	Someone who is flexible.....16%
	Someone who can provide hands on help.....5%

Question 3. Please comment on our seminar series and release days (e.g., seminar format, topics, scheduling of topics in the calendar year.....)

Question 3 was a "new" question introduced in the End-of-Year evaluations. At the time of completing the evaluations during final project seminars, recall of seminar names and dates was provided by a list acting as a prompt. Response rate to this question varied partly due to those individuals who did not complete the evaluations at these final seminars or did not choose to make use of the list provided. In addition, not all participants attended all of the seminars.

With this in mind, the most common responses by First year teachers were a P.E. workshop; a seminar on Classroom Management; a seminar on Teacher Rights; a seminar on Math; a Make & Take workshop; a Reading & Writing workshop and finally a "Nuts & Bolts" workshop. Other seminars such as

Conflict Resolution, Diversity and Cooperative Learning were listed by new teachers but received less than half the mentions of the above seminars.

While these seminars were the most frequently recorded not every participant viewed them as valuable. For example, of those participants commenting on the P.E. workshop, 87% thought that the workshop was "excellent", while 13% thought it could be improved. "Improvements" to this workshop were noted as reducing the participation aspect of the workshop by new teachers. Similarly, 85% of participants listing the Classroom Management seminar thought that it was excellent while 15% thought it could be "improved." Comments in respect to this seminar typically centered around the timing of the seminar with several participants noting that the seminar could have been more valuable if scheduled "earlier in the school year." Only the Math seminar was perceived by all respondents listing as having attended it as "excellent."

Second year teachers listed a total of 16 separate events with Teacher Networking /Sharing event receiving the most mention, followed by the Cooperative Learning seminar, the Assessment seminar then the Diversity seminar The remaining seminars only received one or two mentions from those completing the evaluation. The Teacher Sharing and Assessment seminar were perceived by those listing having attended them as excellent. Fourteen percent indicated they felt that the Cooperative Learning seminar was of "no value" citing that they had "had these strategies before" or the seminar "offered nothing new." Eighty-six percent of respondents alternatively perceived the seminar as "excellent." Perhaps the most controversial seminar was the Diversity seminar. While 50% of respondents thought it was excellent, 37.5% felt it could be improved and 12.5% felt it was of "no value." Those advocating improvement typically cited the length of the seminar While for those individuals for whom the

seminar held little or no value the repetitiveness of material as matching that which they had received in education courses was the cause of concern.

Question 4. Do you have any suggestions for program improvement?

As may be expected this open-ended question received varied responses, particularly from Second year teachers. First year responses were broken down into 9 coding categories and in order of frequency of response emerge as **(1)** Provide seminars that are specific to participant needs (32%); **(2)**.No improvement (18%); **(3)** Expand/Centralize/ Reduce bureaucracy of the program (13%); **(4)** No response (11%); **(5)** More time for teacher networking/sharing (11%); **(6)** More observations of teachers (8%); **(7)** No interactive journals (5%); **(8)** More time with advisors (2.6%) and finally, **(9)** Provide an opportunity for student perspective (2.6%).

Second year teachers were much more varied in their response and they detailed the following fourteen responses in order of frequency: **(1)** More time for teacher networking/sharing (16%); **(2)** More observations of teachers (10%); **(3)** Provide seminars that are specific to participant needs (10%); **(4)** Reduce paperwork (10%); **(5)** Provide a central library (5%); **(6)** Make project available to more teachers (5%); **(7)** No improvement (5%); **(8)** More practical seminars with less theory (5%); **(9)** Another year of support (5%); **(10)** No response (5%); **(11)** No after school seminars (5%); **(12)** A mid-year party (5%); **(13)** More administrator involvement (5%) and finally, **(14)** Ensure that seminars contain material which is not repetitive of credential material (5%).

While some categories are consistent across cohort groups of First and Second year teachers (including more time for teacher sharing and networking; more observations of teachers and seminars that are specific to participant needs), it is very difficult given the individualistic nature of the responses generated by this question to emerge with a possible project improvement. Given that project

improvement is the aim of the question, a possible recommendation for future evaluations may be to include a more structured survey question that includes any key issues the project would welcome feedback on. For example, respondents could be directed to apply their responses to the administration of the program, the advisor or program content.

Question 5. On a scale from 1-5, please rate how valuable each of the following components was for you. Comments are much appreciated!

In this question, First and Second year teachers were asked to respond to a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not valuable) to 5 (very valuable). Two additional responses were N/A (Not applicable) and No Response. The number of First year teachers responding with N/A to value placed on the gathering of Artifacts /Evidences and Artifact/Evidence Reflections is greater than that for Second year teachers as only Second year teachers were asked to focus on gathering these documents during the support year

It is clear from **Table 4.2.3** that Second year teachers perceive many of the forms of support as highly valuable. In comparison to First year teachers, a greater number of Second year teachers rate all events to a higher degree. This is particularly true of reflective conversations with the advisor with 90% of Second year teachers rating this form of support as "very valuable."

Table 4.2.3 End -of -Year evaluations: Question 5.

EVENT	First Year Teachers **Second Year Teachers**						
	No response	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Observation of Veteran Teachers	5% -	2.6% -	8% **5%**	6% -	8% **21%**	50% **68%**	20% **5%**
Self-Assessment	2.6% -	2.6% -	- -	21% **10%**	24% **32%**	42% **58%**	8% -

ILP	5%	13%	5%	26%	32%	2.6%	16%	
	-	-	**21%**	**21%**	**32%**	**21%**	**5%**	
Interactive Journal	5%	19%	18%	24%	13%	13%	8%	
	-	**5%**	**16%**	**32%**	**21%**	**21%**	**5%**	
Gathering Artifact/ Evidences	21%	2.6%	-	16%	11%	2.6%	45%	
	-	-	**11%**	**21%**	**37%**	**26%**	**5%**	
Artifact Reflection	-	13%	-	8%	21%	40%	8%	
	-	-	**5%**	**10%**	**37%**	**48%**	-	
Observation by Advisor	5%	-	-	8%	26%	45%	8%	
	-	-	-	**11%**	**16%**	**68%**	**5%**	
Reflective Conversations with Advisor		-	-	-	-	16%	66%	8%
	-	-	-	**5%**	**5%**	**90%**	-	

Supplemental Question: If you were eligible to continue in the New Teacher Project next year, what recommendations would you make for a second year of seminar topics and release day activities?

As noted a selected number of secondary (First year middle and First and Second Year High School) new teachers responded to an additional question. A total of 18 completed questions were returned. Fifty percent (50%) of respondents indicated that they would recommend more seminars on specific needs. This was followed by the recommendation that new teachers be given greater opportunity to network with others in the program(17%). Other recommendations included more observation of veteran teachers, more resources and ideas, more administrator involvement and inviting the perspective of students for feedback

on attributes of new teachers. These all claimed 5.5% of responses each. Some respondents (11%) indicated that they had no particular response to the question.

IV
Teacher Beliefs and Self-Perceptions of Instructional Practices

The overarching goals of the Santa Cruz County Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) Project are to create and implement, through an integrated set of mechanisms, a set of contexts providing for continuous advancement in the knowledge and skills of teachers. The mechanisms include direct support and assessment services by Advisors, a series of professional seminars, networking, and miscellaneous other activities.

External support by advisors, faculties, and readings clearly seem to be a critical element in the survival of new inductees into the teaching profession. As important as external coaching and assistance are, support by others is not the sole means by which teachers advance in their professional knowledge and skills. Self-reflection is a critically important component in effective teaching and professional development. Its nature has been conceptualized in various ways. Phenomenologists forward the notion of the self as a primary tool of effective teaching and professional development (e.g., Combs, 1978; Usher & Hanke, 1971). In Combs' (1978) opinion, for example, good teaching is not so much a matter of employing the "right" methods or engaging in some particular set of behaviors as it is a matter of solving problems by drawing on the resources of the self. Theorists operating from an information processing perspective focus on rational decision making and the constraints on information processing capacity that bound that rationality (Shavelson & Stern, 1988).

The assumption that teachers engage in rational processes occupies an important place in much of the research on teachers' thought processes (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). In this regard, teachers are like physicians and other professionals who

make and execute decisions within complex environments and under conditions of uncertainty (Shavelson, 1976; Shulman & Elstein, 1975; cited in Shavelson & Stern, 1981). While much of the research on effective teaching has been descriptive in nature, focusing on teachers' behaviors, attempts to understand teaching and the development of the knowledge and skills upon which effective teaching is based by merely looking at behavior are inadequate. It is important to consider more than the description of teaching acts only, and to begin to examine the links between intentions and behavior. Teaching behavior is not static. The variability in teacher behaviors are likely to arise from variations in their goals, judgments, and decisions (Shavelson & Stern, 1981).

Much, if not most, of the research on teaching effectiveness has been limited to the examination of interactive processes between teachers and students. Seriously overlooked in these attempts to characterize effective teaching are teachers' proactive plans and judgments. These everyday instructional decisions are likely to be influenced by the belief systems, attitudes, and expectations teachers hold (Lanier, 1978). Although these self-reflective plans and decisions may not be isomorphic with the moment-by-moment, on-the-fly decisions teachers make during the act of teaching, it seems reasonable to assume that they have an important influence on the over-all nature of goals, planning, and approaches to classroom organization and management. Therefore, some knowledge of teacher's philosophical belief systems must occupy an important space in our agenda to understand how the support and assessment activities of the BTSA project interact with the underlying belief structures upon which self-reflection is based.

Ultimately, we will want to know how teachers come to hold the beliefs they do, and how those beliefs are called upon in self-reflective activities. It will also be important to learn how Pre-service teacher education and the subsequent support and assessment activities of Advisors contribute to the development of a coherent

set of beliefs, the relation of those beliefs to contemporary theory and empirical knowledge, and to the conditions that contribute to continuity and/or change in belief structures. Our immediate aims were much more modest. Our purpose in this element of the evaluation effort was to take the first step in developing an instrument to assess teacher beliefs and teachers' self-perceptions of their actual practices. To the extent that the resulting measure demonstrated suitable psychometric qualities, we also hoped to take the initial step in examining similarities and differences across cohorts of teachers at different stages in their professional development, and as well as changes over the space of the academic year within each of these cohorts.

Method

Subjects

Subjects were three cohorts of individuals along a continuum of preparation and professional development as teachers. One cohort consisted of students in a university teacher education program. The second and third cohorts were comprised of participants in the first and second years of a state project designed to provide professional development support and assessment services for new teachers. A questionnaire designed to assess instructional beliefs and self-perceptions of classroom practices was administered at the beginning of the academic year to students enrolled in the first course in the teacher education professional sequence, and to BTSA participants at one of their scheduled seminar meetings at the beginning of the school year. A total of 46 questionnaires were completed by preservice students, 25 by first year BTSA participants, and 13 by second year BTSA participants. Preservice students were not enrolled in a common class during the spring quarter, so we attempted to locate those who took the pretest and to administer the posttest in other classes in which they were enrolled. Seventeen preservice

students, some of whom had not completed a questionnaire at the beginning of the year, responded to our request to complete the questionnaire.

Because time was limited and the agenda full for the BTSA seminars, we were unable to administer the end-of-year questionnaire to BTSA participants in a single setting as we had at the beginning of the year. BTSA Advisors asked that we use an alternative strategy, with the Advisors themselves asking participants to complete the questionnaires during the Advisors' visits to the schools.

We were able to obtain both pre- and posttest questionnaires from 10 preservice students. Posttest questionnaires were obtained from 24 first year and 17 second year participants in this manner. Both pre and post versions were available for 15 of the first year BTSA participants and for 11 second year participants.

Measures

A questionnaire was developed to examine the beliefs of new teachers and teachers-in-training regarding a range of issues that are relevant to the instructional activities of classroom teachers, and to assess their self-perceptions regarding their own instructional practices. Based on our study of the literature on teacher beliefs and attitudes, we constructed a matrix providing categories within which we attempted to develop items. We began by developing statements of beliefs and practices on which teachers are known to differ. Our categories were Learning and Development; Motivation and Expectations; Priorities, Management and Organization; and Teaching as a Profession. We then attempted to generate belief and practice statements for both beliefs and practices for each of these categories. The matrix is shown in Table 1.

Before proceeding, we should emphasize that this work represents an initial attempt to develop a measure capable of identifying variations in

teachers' beliefs and in their self-perceptions of instructional practices. Our intent included the analysis of differences between groups at different stages of their professional preparation as teachers, as well as changes in beliefs and practices over time, to the extent that the psychometric qualities of the instrument warranted its exploratory uses for this purpose. But we wish to stress that the emphasis is on the potential of the measure for use in the study of the relationship between beliefs and practices, and the role of beliefs in reflective practice.

Table 1

Matrix of Item Classification for Teacher Attitudes and Self-Perception Measure

Learning & Intellectual Development		Motivation & Expectations		Priorities, Mgmt. & Organization		Teaching as Profession	
Belief	Practice	Belief	Practice	Belief	Practice	Belief	Practice
Q2	*Q1*	**Q8**	*Q4*	**Q6**	**Q1**	*Q11*	**Q33**
Q3	**Q4**	**Q13**	*Q14*	**Q9**	**Q14**	*Q12*	**Q41**
Q5	**Q15**	**Q16**	*Q18*	**Q10**	*Q22*	**Q19**	
Q7	**Q21**	**Q17**	**Q23**	**Q11**	**Q24**	**Q20**	
Q12	*Q24*	*Q21*	**Q35**	*Q16*	**Q25**	**Q31**	
Q34	**Q27**	**Q26**		**Q18**	**Q30**	**Q32**	
Q37	**Q28**	**Q37**		*Q19*	*Q38*	**Q36**	
Q38	**Q39**	**Q40**		*Q26*			
				Q29			

Note: **Boldface** = Primary classification; *Italic* = Secondary classification

We attempted to write items reflecting the distinctions in beliefs and practices identified by the original set of statements previously described.

A major dilemma in writing such items is that neither beliefs nor instructional practices separate naturally into mutually exclusive categories. For example, with regard to organizing the classroom for instruction, most teachers use a variety of whole-class, small group, and individual activities. We know that many teachers, particularly at the upper grade levels, rely heavily a recitation script approach (Tharp & Gallimore, 1989), characterized by presentations to the total class mixed with individual seatwork assignment. However, modern practice places increased emphases on collaborative small group activity. Our interest, with regard to this particular issue, would be in learning what mode of instruction a given respondent employed most. We explored various item formats, including a Likert scale, but found that the issues, posed in this way, were likely to produce responses strongly influenced by social desirability factors.

We adopted a format based on the item form originally developed by Susan Harter for her Children's Self-Perception Scales (Harter, 1985). Items consist of contrasting statements connected with the work BUT. Each statement characterizes a particular reference group of people. An example of this kind of contrast, in an domain unrelated to teacher beliefs, would be those who prefer cake for dessert, as contrasted with those who prefer pie. There is no implication that either reference group is better than the other. Respondents' first task is to decide which statement identifies a set of people most like themselves. Each respondent must then decide whether the chosen statement is "really true for me." or merely "sort of true for me," and check the appropriate box accordingly (See appendix A). This format has been used successfully with adults as well as with a broad age-range of children and adolescents. Harter reports that this format is less susceptible to social desirability response set than are alternative item forms.

The categories that guided the development of items are not mutually exclusive. For example, beliefs or practices relevant to assumptions about learning

and intellectual development may also involve assumptions about motivation. Therefore, our initial plan was to derive subscales empirically, by means of factor analysis. Unfortunately, the number of subjects for whom data on both the pre and post administration of the questionnaires were available was insufficient for such an analysis. Therefore, we proceeded with the hope that in spite of covariance across categories, items generated within categories would display sufficient coherence to serve as subscales. We expected items developed to represent given categories of issues to demonstrate at least a moderate degree of coherence, reflecting particular perspectives. We could not expect a high level of association among the items comprising a subscale because it seemed very unlikely that a set of items would represent a single construct. Moreover, in many instances the most desirable response (in terms of being informed by contemporary theory and research) would not be at either extreme of the four-point continuum for a given item. A belief or practice (in our judgment) might call for a response at one side or the other of the conjunction that forms the demarcation between the contrasting statements, but a well informed response might not fall at either extreme end of the continuum.

In our preliminary analysis of the psychometric qualities of the questionnaire our decision rule was that at least 4 items (from among the items originally drafted and administered) of suitable reliability were needed to form each subscale. An item analysis resulted in the elimination of the "Teaching as a Profession" subscale because too few items demonstrated acceptable reliability. Subscales with internal consistency values below .45 for at least one administration were rejected for use in the main analyses. The items that remained after discarding those that clearly functioned poorly are displayed in modified and abbreviated form in Appendix B.

Pretest and posttest reliabilities for the Beliefs regarding Learning and Development subscale were unacceptably low. Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the pre- and posttest administrations of the Motivation Beliefs subscale were .31 and .56,

respectively. A modified version of the subscale, with a marginal item (Item 26) eliminated, demonstrated improved reliability; .47 for the pretest, and .66 for the posttest. Internal consistency reliabilities for the Priorities, Management and Organization subscale were .47 and .56, respectively, for the pre- and posttest administrations. Neither the pre- nor posttest administration of the Teaching as a Profession subscale achieved acceptable levels of reliability.

Cronbach alpha reliabilities for the "Practices relating to Learning and Intellectual Development" for the pre- and posttest administrations were .45 and .77, respectively, while those for the Motivational Practices subscale were .33 and .68. The pre- and post-administration reliabilities for the Priorities, Management and Organizational Practices were .42 and .66, respectively.

Procedures

The questionnaire was administered to members of all three cohorts at the beginning of the academic year. Preservice students in the teacher education program completed the questionnaire in a class required of all students interested in entering the teaching credential program. The in-service subjects, constituting the membership of cohorts 2 and 3, completed the questionnaire during a regularly scheduled seminar for BTSA participants. The following oral instructions were given:

> As you know, the New Teacher Project is funded by the State of California. As with all state and federally funded programs, we have a responsibility to evaluate the program. In fact, if programs such as this one are to continue to be funded, it is especially important to be able to describe their effects as completely as possible.
>
> A unique quality of this program is that most of its evaluation activities focus directly on the delivery of support services, through the Advisors who will be working with you directly. As much as possible, data will be the by-products of interactions between New Teachers and Advisors, and your assessment of those services. The state will want to know how well the program did in its efforts to provide a seamless link between service and assessment.
>
> The information we wish to gather today is somewhat distinct from that aspect of the evaluation. By the terms of the contract that supports this

project, we are responsible to describe beliefs, attitudes, and practices of participants. This general information will be useful to project staff as they go about the task of planning for the people they will be working with. The information you provide today is confidential. We need your names for initial coding of the data, but individuals will not be identified with their responses. All analyses using the information collected today will use aggregated data.

In addition to providing information that will help Advisors understand something of the range of similarities and differences among the group members, these data will make it possible to identify any changes that occur over time, in attitudes, beliefs, or practices. For example, many of us would like to teach in a particular way that is consistent with our individual educational philosophy. But in some instances we may be in the early stages of developing the skills that are needed to put that belief into practice. With time, our practices and beliefs may come to converge more. We hope to be able to identify such changes, if an where they occur.

The format of this questionnaire is rather different from ones you may have filled out in the past, so let us take a moment to go through the directions at the top of the page together.

(At this point the individual administering the questionnaire read the directions aloud, pausing to check for understanding, and emphasizing that only one response per item was to be marked.)

Results

Repeated measures analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were performed for each belief and practice subscale of the Teacher Beliefs and Practices Questionnaire. In each analysis, pre-service, first year program participants, and second year program participants constituted the levels of the Cohort factor, with beginning- and end-of-year administrations of the questionnaire constituting the repeated measure (Trials).

The Beliefs subscale for Learning and Intellectual Development was not analyzed because of insufficient reliability. The main effects for Cohort and Trials, and well as the interaction terms, were non-significant for two of the Beliefs subscales: Management and Organization, and Teaching as a Profession. The analysis of responses to the Beliefs sub-scale for Motivation revealed a significant main effect for Cohort ($F = 6.39$, df 2, 33, $p < .02$) and a significant Cohort by Trials

interaction ($F = 3.38$, df 2,33, $p < .05$). A graphic representation of these results is presented in Figure 1

Figure 1

Beliefs About Student Motivation Among Three Professional Cohorts

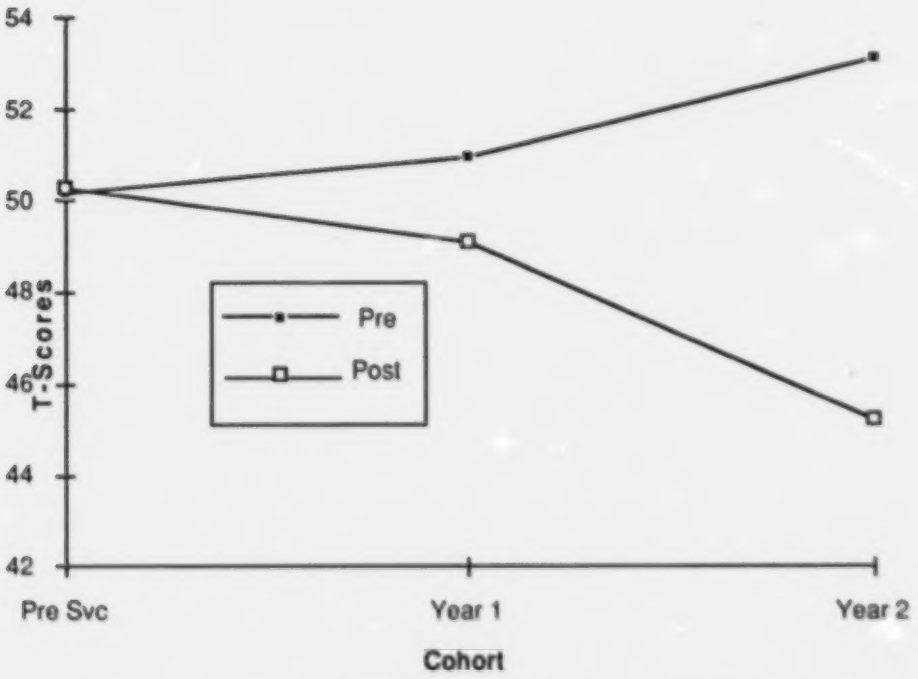


Figure 1 shows that beliefs about motivation changed over the course of the year for second year program participants, but not for either of the other cohorts. However, inspection of item analysis results indicated that item 26 did not function well within the subset of items comprising the Motivational Beliefs subscale. The finding that this particular item functioned differently than other items on the subscale is interesting in its own right. The implications of this finding will be examined in the discussion section. When this particular item was dropped from the Motivational Beliefs subscale and the resulting data were re-analyzed, the main effect for Cohort was non-significant, and the interaction term fell to a level just short of significance ($F = 3.003$, df 2, 31, $p < .06$).

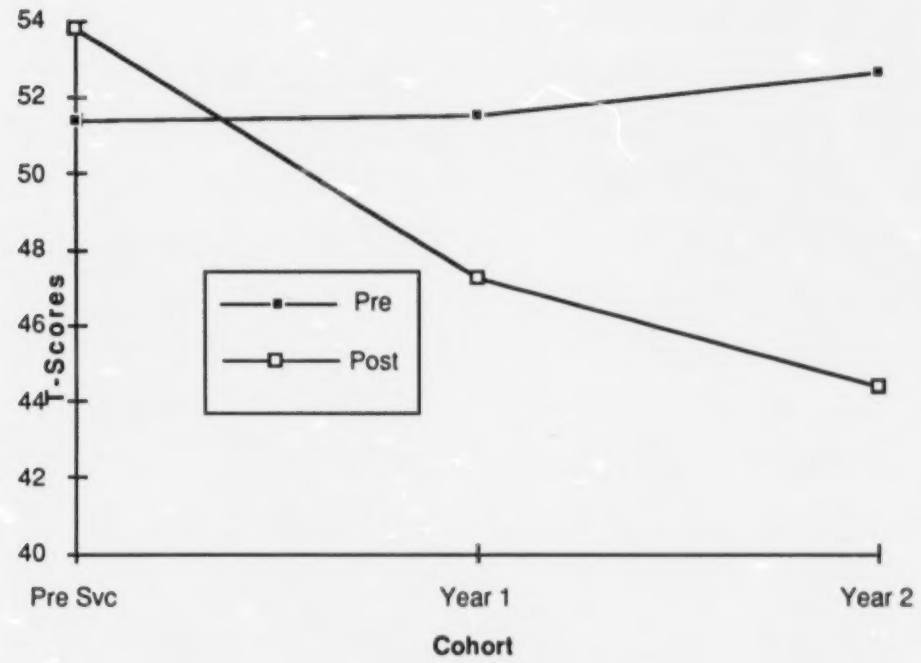
Inspection of the items and scoring for the Student Motivation Belief subscale indicates that subjects who scored high on this scale believed that cooperation and collaborative activities were better ways to motivate student learning than competition for grades and privileges; that high expectations should be held for all students, rather than adjusting expectations to avoid challenges at which students might fail; and that students should be active agents in their own education, sharing in setting their own learning goals, in contrast to all such goals being set by the teacher. They also believed their own effectiveness as teachers should be judged largely on the basis of student outcomes.

Significant results were found on all of the subscales representing teachers' perceptions of their own practices. The analysis of responses to the scale for Self-Perceptions regarding student Learning and Intellectual Development revealed a significant main effect for Cohort ($F = 5.85$, df 2, 33, $p < .02$). The Cohort by Trails interaction was also significant ($F = 4.55$, df 2,33, $p < .02$). These results are displayed in Figure 2.

Based on the items that comprised the Practices subscale relating to Learning and Intellectual Development, it appears that high scoring teachers felt they were skilled at relating instructional content to students' own knowledge and life experiences, and they reported that in their teaching they placed a heavy emphasis on making those connections. They perceived themselves as teachers who consistently tried to teach to the highest level of student abilities and understanding, rather than focusing more at students' independent levels. Subjects scoring high on this dimension perceived themselves as using a variety of modes of assistance, such as modeling and questioning, to promote student learning. This pattern contrasted

Figure 2

Self-Perceptions of Practices Relating to Learning and Intellectual Development, for Three Professional Development Cohorts



with that of lower scoring subjects, who made little purposeful use of modeling as an instructional technique, and who used questioning primarily as a means of checking student learning, rather than as a way of stimulating thinking. Finally, those who scored high on this subscale believed that they provided their students with many activities that promoted problem solving and critical thinking, in contrast to lower scoring subjects, who felt they focused more on activities that helped students learn essential information and skills.

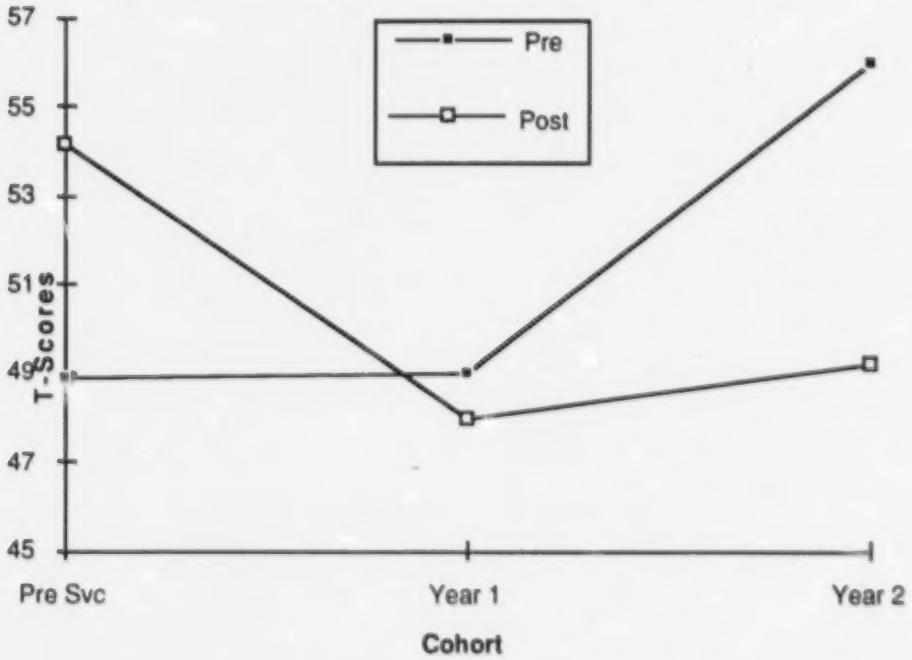
The analysis of responses to the sub-scale on self-perceptions of practices relating to student motivation produced no significant main effects, but the Cohort by Trials interaction was significant ($F = 5.77$, df 2, 33, $p < .01$). Pairwise comparisons among means indicated that the source of the interaction was a

significant difference between the pre and posttest scores of year two program participants (see Figure 3).

Subjects who scored relatively higher than their peers perceived themselves as teachers who provided many activities for student affective development and believed it is just as important to foster affective development as it is to teach curriculum content. With regard to content, they say themselves as teachers who were skilled at connecting instructional content to students' life experiences, they felt they had a knack for stimulating students' interest in learning, and they did not exclusively set explicit learning goals for their students. Rather, they provided opportunities for students to set many of their own learning goals.

Figure 3

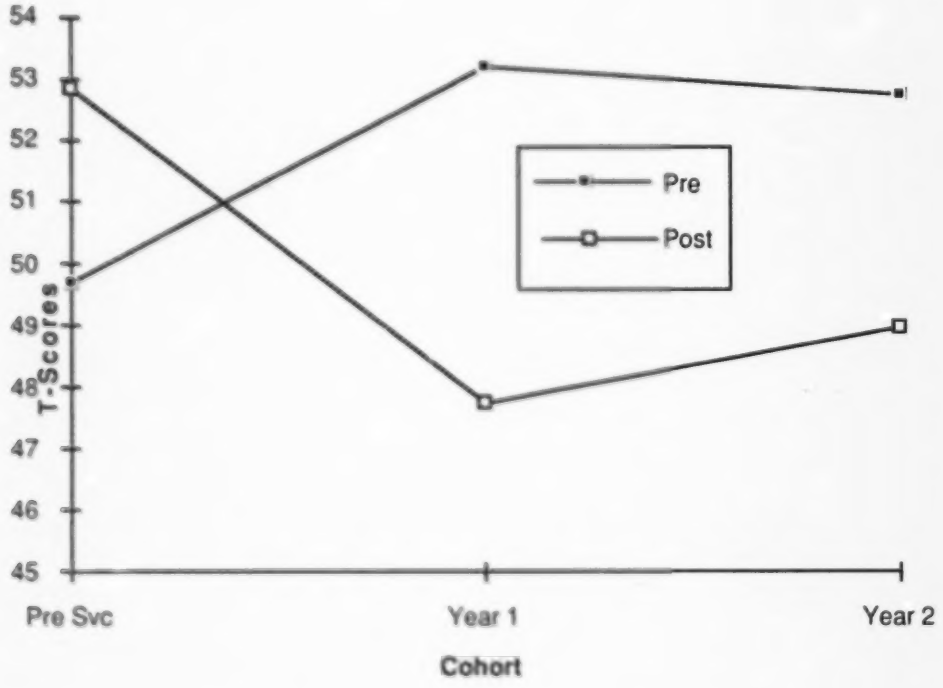
Self-Perceptions of Practices Relating to Student Motivation for Three Professional Development Cohorts



The analysis of the subscale on Priorities, Management and Organization produced non-significant main effects for Cohort and Trials, but the Cohort by Trials interaction term was significant ($F = 7.49$, df 2, 33, $p < .002$). On this scale the overall pattern was for both first- and second-year program participants to score lower on the end-of-year administration than on the questionnaire they completed at the beginning of the year, while the trend was in the opposite direction for the pre-service sample. These results are displayed in Figure 4

Figure 4

Self-Perception of Practices Relating to Instructional Priorities, Classroom Management and Organization, for Three Professional Development Cohorts



Items forming the Priorities, Management, and Organizational Practices Subscale suggest that those subjects who scored relatively high on this subtest reported organizing most of their instruction around small group activities, contrasted with those who used more whole-class presentations and individual seatwork. These subjects perceived themselves as being successful in engaging almost all students in discussions of academic content, and they used many hands-on activities and projects. They organized their classrooms mainly around heterogeneous groups, in contrast to those who organized more around homogeneous grouping. Finally, subjects who scored higher on this subscale involved students in setting the norms for appropriate classroom behavior, rather than setting the rules for classroom behavior themselves.

Subscale scores of BTSA personnel providing support and assessment services were compared with posttest scores of their clients. T-scores for data aggregated across all groups have a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. Figure 5 shows that scores of service providers exceed the overall mean on all of the subscales for which differences were found among cohorts. Service providers included all five Advisors who worked with the program for most of the academic year, plus the project Director.

Figure 5

Mean T-Scores for BTSA Project Service Providers

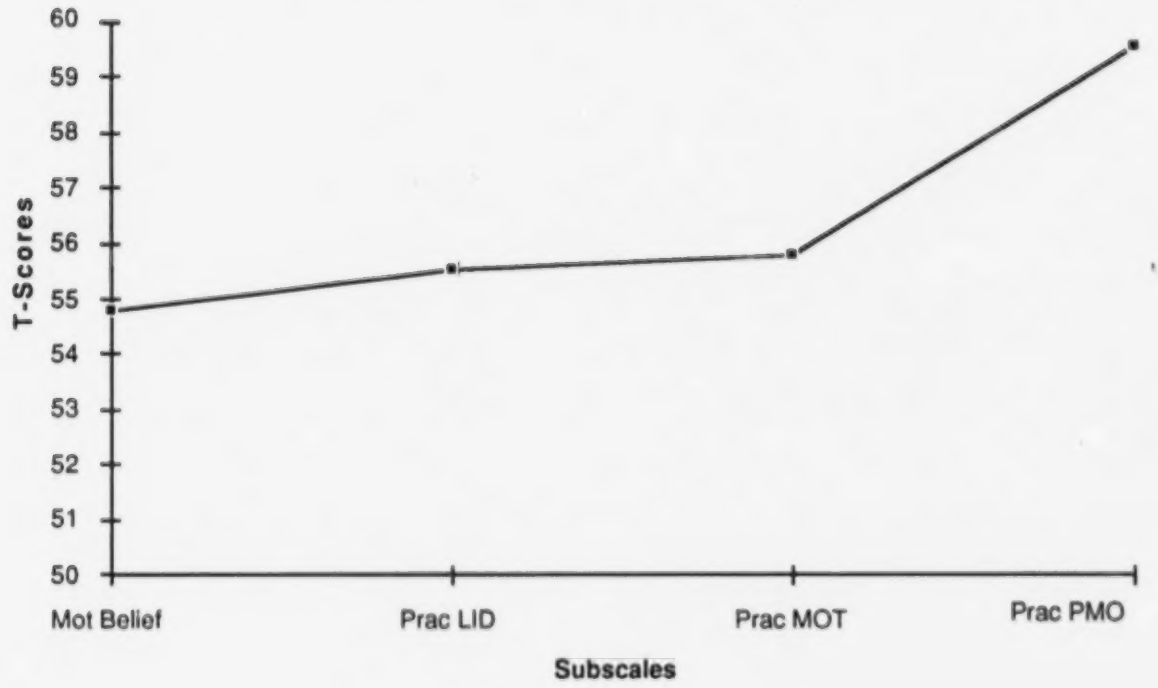
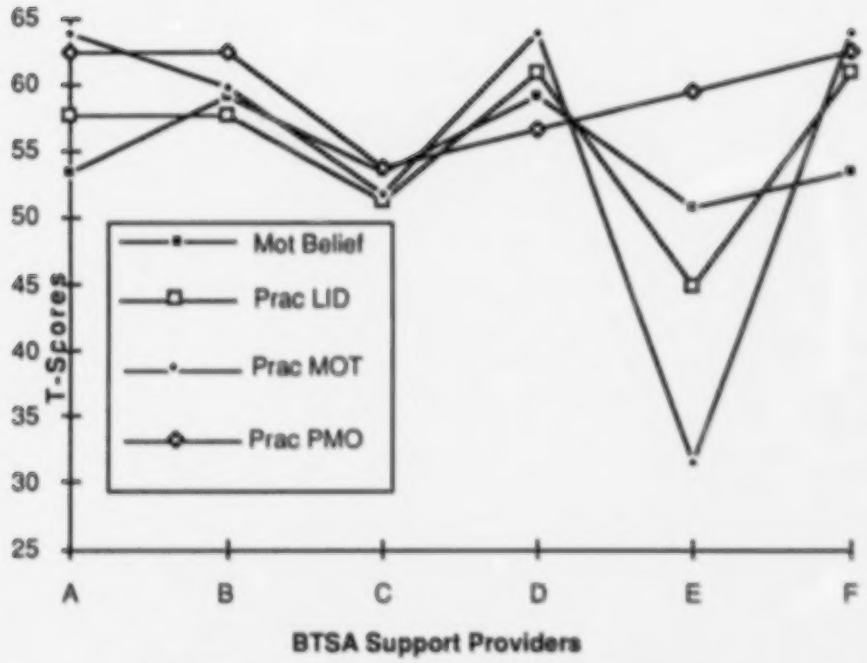


Figure 6 is depicts the extent of variability among the Service Providers. The graph shows that there is some variability within Service Providers for individual subscales, especially in the case of Provider "E". Scores of all Providers exceed the overall mean for all subscales, except in the Case of Provider "E". In this case the score for motivational beliefs is almost at the overall mean, and the scores for Learning and Intellectual Development Practices and for Motivational Practices are well below the over sample mean.

Figure 6

Subscale Scores of BTSA Support Providers



One-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine differences between Service Providers and professional development cohorts. In each analysis, groups (Preservice, Year 1 and Year 2 project participants, and the service providers) constituted the levels of the categorical factor, with subscale scores forming the dependent variable. The analysis of the Motivational Beliefs subscale indicated a significant difference among the comparison groups ($F = 2.66$, df 3 ,61, $p < .05$). Post hoc multiple comparison with Fisher's Least-Significant- Difference Test (Fisher's LSD) determined that scores of both the Preservice group ($p < .02$) and those of Service Providers ($p < .04$) exceeded the scores of Year 2 participants. The analysis of the Learning and Intellectual Development Practices subscale also yielded significant results ($F = 2.30$, df 3,61, $p < .05$). Fisher's LSD Tests showed that scores of the Preservice group were higher than those of both the Year 1 and Year 2 cohorts

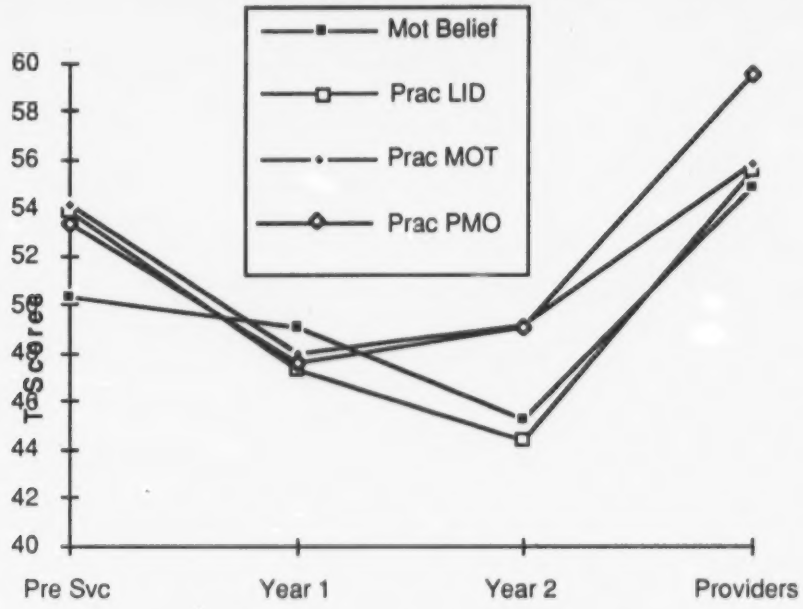
(both *p*s < .05). And the scores of Service Providers exceeded those of the Year 1 cohort ($p < .05$).

A significant group effect was also detected for the Priorities, Management Organization Practices subscale ($F = 4.194$, *df* 3,61, $p < .01$). The overall significance was accounted for by higher scores for the Preservice than for the Year 1 cohort ($p < .03$), and by Service Provider scores that exceeded both Year 1 ($p < .01$) and Year 2 ($p < .02$) .

The analysis of the Motivational Practices subscale also yielded a significant result ($F = 2.95$, *df* 3,61, $p < .04$). Scores of the Preservice group ($p < .01$) and those of Service Providers ($p < .03$) both exceeded those of the Year 1 cohort. Figure 7 provides a graphic comparison of mean scores for all four groups on each of the four subscales analyzed. The overall pattern revealed in this graph is one in which the absolute value of Preservice and Service Provider group means exceed the aggregate mean (T-Score mean = 50) on each of the four subscales, whereas the absolute values of the means for Year 1 and Year 2 cohorts are below the aggregate mean.

Figure 7

Mean T-Scores for Professional Development Cohorts and their Service Providers



Professional Development Cohorts and Service Providers

Discussion

The work reported here was an initial attempt to assess the beliefs of new teachers and teachers-in-training. We also hoped to learn about how these prospective teachers and inductees into the teaching profession perceived their own teaching along a number of dimensions that are relevant to the self-reflective processes we assume are instrumental to successful classroom practice, and thus to professional development.

Given the fact that beliefs and self-perceptions relevant to instructional decision making cannot be divided easily, if at all, into mutually exclusive categories, the finding of moderate levels of reliability for subsets of items characterized as subscales was encouraging. We were more successful in developing subscales relating to self-perceptions of instructional practices than in devising subscales with dimensional characteristics to assess beliefs.

Self-perceptions of practices might be easier to measure than beliefs because individuals can relate them to their own concrete actions, whereas the referents for beliefs are likely to be less tangible. Nevertheless, the lack of a clear pattern of response to items that, in our view, reflect fundamental differences in assumptions about issues such as learning and intellectual development and classroom management and organization, is perplexing. If teachers have a common grounding in a particular theoretical perspective, we would expect to find some pattern of congruence among the items of a subscale. For example, if teachers subscribe to a sociocultural perspective regarding the nature of learning and development, one would expect them to believe that learning is essentially a social process, rather than something that best takes place mainly through individual effort. We would also expect teachers subscribing to the sociocultural perspective to place a premium on helping students learn by means of connections to their life experiences, and to subscribe to the idea that new concepts and skills are likely to be internalized when there is genuine engagement in the negotiation of meaning and in the construction of knowledge in a social context characterized by conversation among group members, and with benefit of prompting and other forms of scaffolding by the teacher or by more knowledgeable peers in a group. We would expect the responses of teachers who believe that learning is fundamentally the result of individual effort and activity to differ from the responses of those who see learning and development, and the motivation to learn, as constructions resulting from joint productive activity by participants in a social context.

A majority of the items we devised to measure beliefs were not successful in making such distinctions. There are a number of possible explanations. One is that the teachers in our sample did not hold theoretically consistent views on these issues. A second possibility is that the items themselves were defective. The item format may have been inadequate for our purpose, or the wording of contrasting

statements may have been ambiguous, or both of these conditions may have been at work. In any case, the results we did obtain with the Motivational Beliefs scale gives us cause for some optimism that the measurement issues can be resolved.

Of the four belief subscales, the one that showed the most promise was the one that assessed beliefs about student motivation. The pattern found for this subscale showed a trend in which subjects scored progressively lower with experience. The pre to post difference was not significant for first year BTSA participants, but it was significant for the second year participants. Pre and posttest scores were virtually identical for the Preservice cohort.

Responses to one item in particular were problematic, making for an uneasy fit with other items constituting the subscale. This was item 26, which contrasted a belief by some teachers that the management of incentives and consequences is an effective means of classroom discipline, with the belief held by other teachers that the management of incentives and consequences is a manipulative practice to be avoided. At one extreme there are individuals, some of whom identify with the sociocultural perspective, who disparage all instructional arrangements in which there is an unequal distribution of power between students and teacher. This does not seem to constitute a viable explanation for the pattern we saw in responses to this item, in relationship to responses to other items that involve directed action on the part of the teacher. Our impression, and this is only an impression, is that many teachers lack depth in understanding the psychological principles that underlie contingency management. They confuse the clumsy and arbitrary uses of incentives and punishments they have seen or heard about with the principles that underlie of contingency management.

The general pattern of results for self-perceptions of instructional practices was one in which preservice teachers-in-training either scored the same on the pre- and posttests, or scored higher on the posttest than on the measure administered at

the beginning of the year. In contrast, as with the motivational beliefs mentioned earlier, the trend was for BTSA participants to score lower over time, with regard to differences between pre and posttest responses. In some instances the pre to post differences did not attain significance for the Year 1 cohort, but they tended to be significant for Year 2.

Upon first consideration these results seem paradoxical. Shouldn't teachers be gaining increased confidence in their practices as their experience in the classroom increases, and as they benefit from the ongoing support and assessment activities of the BTSA Project? Wouldn't we expect BTSA participants to strive to implement instructional practices that are congruent with those valued by their Advisors? It is certainly not surprising to find that BTSA Support Providers score higher than Inductees on the self-perception of instructional practices scales. After all, the Advisors are selected in part because they are considered to be skilled and effective teachers. Their scores provide one form of validation for the subscales themselves. So, why do the scores of Service Providers and Inductees not show a tendency to converge over time? And why do we find that a high degree of convergence does exist between the response patterns of teachers-in-training and those of Service Providers? These are intriguing questions. At this time we can only speculate about the answers.

When preservice university students first responded to the questionnaire they had limited experience in an instructional role. Their beliefs were very likely based upon their perceptions of teachers they regarded as effective, and their self-perceptions of practices were probably based upon a combination of whatever informal experience they had working with children and youth, and their own sense of self-efficacy. By the time they took the posttest, all had experience in a classroom placement that involved some instructional interactions with students. Since these experiences took place in protected settings, in the sense that they involved very

circumscribed kinds of interactions with students and their instructional planning had the benefit of guidance both from cooperating teachers and university faculty, they were likely to perceive themselves as making progress. The philosophy of the teacher education program is quite well known, so even in their initial beliefs students are likely to self-select into the program. As they take courses and experience guidance in their field placements, their beliefs and the kinds of practices they value quite likely gravitate toward the views of the education faculty with whom they work. We believe the views of that faculty to be relatively consistent with those of the BTSA Service Providers.

The situation faced by inductees into the profession is quite different from that of teachers-in-training. New teachers find themselves responsible for the entire curriculum and for the substantial challenges of classroom management and organization. The first years are very trying, as witnessed by the high rate at which new teachers drop out of the profession; a condition the California New Teacher Program was created to address. We have the impression that a tremendous portion of the time and energy of Advisors and other BTSA staff is directed at providing the kind of support that enables the new teacher to survive the challenges of a profession that is extremely complex and difficult even for experienced teachers who take their responsibilities seriously. The time taken to provide emotional support and concrete procedural knowledge may leave little opportunity for Advisors and their clients to engage in conversation concerning the psychological and philosophical underpinnings of practice. Without that stimulus, without modeling the rational processes of theoretically grounded reflection, it seems unlikely that a majority of new teachers will develop this critical tool of professional development spontaneously.

At the same time that new teachers are struggling to survive, and receiving critical assistance from BTSA Advisors in the process, they are immersed in the

on-going context of the school. This is a context and a culture that does not change easily. Many of the customary procedures and conventions embedded in it run contrary to the practices advocated by the BTSA advisors and Pre-service Faculty. The power of the conservative forces of traditional practice should not be underestimated. In part, the pattern we see in the data presented here may reflect the influences of those forces to preserve the status quo that are embedded in the social organization of the schools.

Whether these or some other explanation accounts for the patterns seen in our data remains an important issue for follow-up investigation.

V

Interactive Journal and Individual Learning Plan Analysis

One of the avenues through which advisors assessed and provided support for beginning teachers was the *interactive journal*. Interactive journals provided a forum for dialogue between beginning teachers and their advisors. The journals were used in a variety of ways (e.g., to pose questions, reflect on daily classroom experiences, assess beginning teacher needs, provide assistance, etc.), and in fact, varied a great deal in both quantity and quality of use. Beginning teachers were given notebooks at one of the initial BTSA seminars during the Fall of 1993. Typically, teachers kept their notebooks in the classroom, but oftentimes journal entries were recorded elsewhere (e.g., at home, at BTSA seminars, etc.). Advisor entries were usually made during routine visits to the classroom.

The purpose of examining the journals for program evaluation was to begin to (a) identify thematic content patterns for teachers and advisors, and (b) characterize general styles of journal use as a means of support and assessment. One of our primary aims was to compare journal entries across the course of the academic year to identify shifts in thematic content for first and second year teachers. What are the salient issues, and are they different for first and second year teachers at different times throughout the school year? We were also interested in characterizing differences in the quality and quantity of journal use by different teacher-advisor dyads to get a sense of how the interactive journal provides a forum for support and assessment. Are the interactive journals used differently and to a greater or lesser degree by different teacher-advisor dyads?

In addition, novice teachers and their advisors completed an Individual Learning Plan (ILP) at the start of the academic year. ILPs identified strengths and weaknesses, and put forth a plan for assisting teacher development in one or more

areas throughout the year. A secondary aim of the present analysis was to briefly describe and compare the domains identified in the ILPs with those discussed in the interactive journals. To what extent do the interactive journals reflect the domains assessed at the beginning of the year in the ILP? Do teachers and advisors address issues raised in the ILP?

Method

Journal Sample Characteristics

Program evaluators began to receive interactive journals during May, 1994. Only journals for teachers who entered the program during Fall, 1993 were included in the final analysis. All in all, we received and analyzed 20 journals. Sixteen came from first year teachers (80%), and 4 (20%) from second year teachers. Four advisors were represented in the journals. While we had originally planned to code all completed journals, we were not able to obtain them in time to meet project deadlines. Nor were we able to draw a representative sample.

Procedure

Thematic Content. Each journal was coded by one of two graduate student research assistants. Coding involved the identification of themes within journal entries. There were a total of eight coding categories based, in part, on the *Continuum of Skills, Knowledge and Attitudes* developed by Moir and Garmston (1992): (1) *organizing* and managing the classroom-creating a positive learning environment, (2) *planning* and designing instruction, (3) *delivering* instruction to all students, (4) *demonstrating* subject matter knowledge, (5) *diagnosing* and evaluating student learning, (6) *participating* as members of a learning community, (7) *chit-chat*, and (8) *other*. (*Chit-chat* referred to non-educational, social discourse). Entries were coded consecutively beginning with the first entry in the journal. The author (either novice teacher or advisor) of the entry was recorded, and then the content was coded by noting (checking) the occurrence of themes within the entry. Each entry could be

characterized as reflecting any number of themes. Thus, the number of codes per entry ranged from one to eight; that is, a given entry could be coded as reflecting anywhere from one to eight themes from the coding manual. Table 1 provides the operational definitions for each of the coding categories employed in this investigation.

Table 1

CODING CATEGORIES FOR

INTERACTIVE JOURNALS AND INDIVIDUAL LEARNING PLANS

Coding Category	Category Definition
(1) Organizing and Managing the Classroom Creating a Positive Learning Environment	Any reference to social organization (e.g., physical arrangement of the environment, grouping strategies), classroom management (contingency management routines, procedures, communicating expectations, etc.), or building relationships/rapport.
(2) Planning and Designing Instruction	Any reference to lesson planning, learning outcomes (i.e., objectives to be met), or supporting materials
(3) Delivering Instruction to All Students	Reference to any means of assistance to ensure responsive presentation of material, or instructional strategies in general. Also includes reference to classroom activities.

(4) Demonstrating Subject Matter Knowledge	Reference to teacher's understanding of subject and materials, or keeping informed of changes in the field
(5) Diagnosing and Evaluating Student Learning	Any reference to assessment or monitoring of student progress
(6) Participating as Members of a Learning Community	Any reference to professional development, relationships, sharing of ideas, parental contact, etc.
(7) Chit-Chat	Any irrelevant topic of discussion
(8) Other	Any interesting topic not falling into one of the other categories

Styles of Journal Use. In addition to coding for thematic content, general styles of use were examined. One indicator of style was the number of entries per journal. Another indicator was the type of novice teacher entry, which included (a) requests for assistance, (b) other statements and reflections, and (c) both requests and statements. In addition, general styles were identified by coders as part of the process of reading a large number of interactive journals from the current and previous academic years. In the end, all relevant information was considered and a consensus was reached regarding the basic characteristics of stylistic differences reflected in journal use.

ILP Comparisons. For purposes of this analysis, the same category system was used for ILPs as for the Interactive Journals. Some advisors followed the instructions on the ILP form and declared the categories of support included in the plan. Other advisors did not, and in this case the researchers categorized the ILPs

according to the same system and rules as described for the Journals. This procedure, while unavoidable, introduced problems of inter-rater reliability.

In the second level of analysis, ILP data were described and compared with journal data to get a sense of the degree of correspondence between the two forums.

Results and Discussion

Inter-coder Agreement

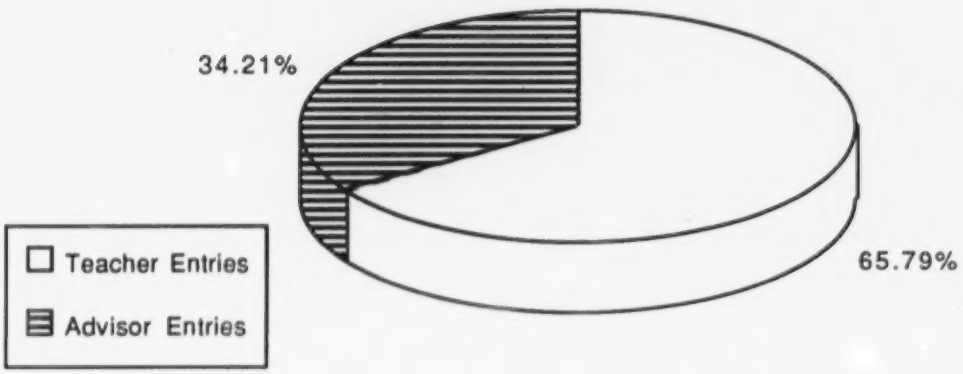
Inter-coder agreement was estimated on a separate sample of journals for each of the coding categories. One category, *demonstrating subject matter knowledge,* was not estimated due to very low frequency of occurrence. Cohen's kappa ranged from .32 to 1.0 ($p < .01$) for novice teacher entries, and .28 to .73 ($p < .01$) for advisor entries. The overall percentage of agreement including all categories was .93. Cohen's kappa is an agreement statistic that corrects for the portion of observed agreement due to chance. While no hard and fast rules exist for determining the acceptability of a given kappa, anything over .40 is considered acceptable by some (e.g., Fleiss, 1981). A more conservative criterion of .70 is employed by others (e.g., Bakeman & Gottman, 1986). The only category with a level of agreement below .40 was *other*.

Thematic Content

Three coding categories were dropped due to very low frequencies of occurrence or unreliable identification: *demonstrating, chit-chat,* and *other*. The first two occurred very infrequently in our coding, whereas the latter occurred with some regularity. However, the degree of agreement on the *other* category was not acceptable, and so it was dropped from analysis.

As seen in Figure 1, novice teachers authored 66% and advisors 34% of the journal entries in our sample.

Figure 1. Journal Entry Authorship (Percent of Coded Entries)



The overarching themes of journal entries were represented by five categories. Figure 2 shows the percent of coded entries expressing each of the five themes. Overall, 43% of the entries discussed issues coded as *organizing*, 44% *planning*, 30% *delivering*, 18% *diagnosing*, and 42% *participating*.

Figure 2. Journal Entry Domains: Total

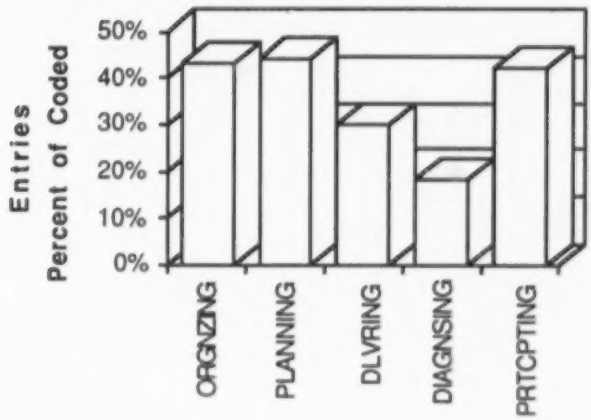
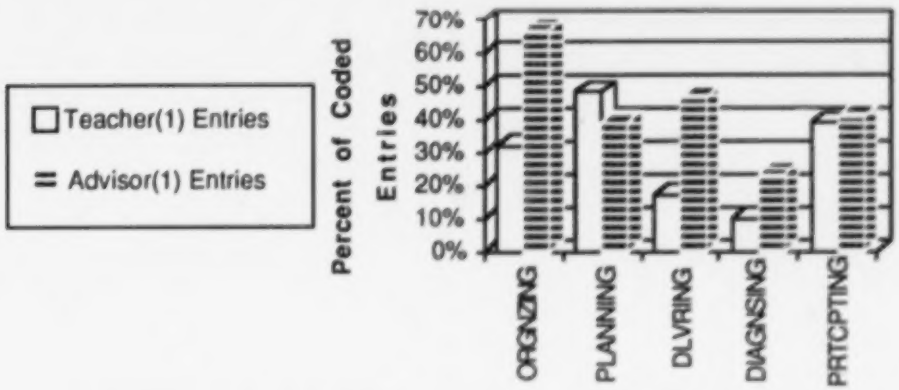
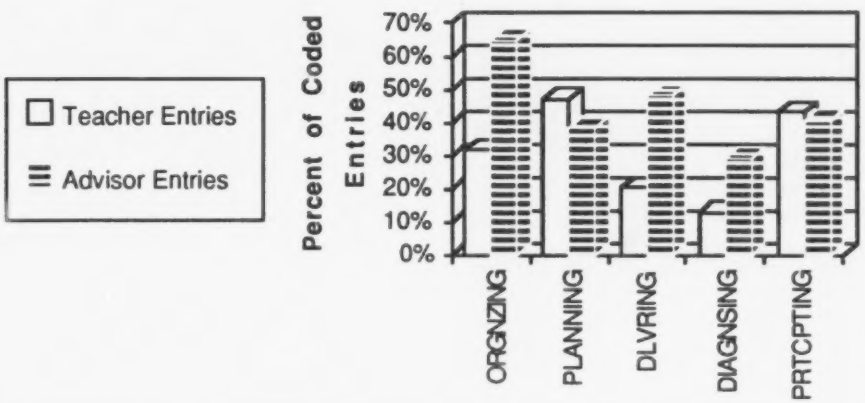


Figure 3. Journal Entry Domains: First Year



Figures 3, 4, and 5 show the percent of teacher and advisor entries discussing each of the themes for first year, second year, and first + second year journals. By examining these figures one can get a sense of the areas of concern to beginning teachers and their advisors, as well as a rough estimate of the correspondence between teacher and advisor entries. For example, the data in Figure 5 suggest that advisors were generally more concerned about aspects of classroom organization and management than were beginning teachers, possibly as a result of teachers' concern for planning and designing instruction during the first two years. In general, though, advisors attended to a wider variety of themes in their journal entries than did novice teachers, and this may be due to advisors packing more information into fewer entries. Interesting differences between first and second year teacher entries can be seen by comparing Figures 3 and 4. Apparently, issues of concern broaden for novice teachers during the second year to include *delivering* and *participating* to a far greater degree.

Figure 5. Journal Entry Domains: Total



We also examined changes in thematic content over the course of the school year by calculating the percentage of entries during Fall, Winter, and Spring (approximately 3 month intervals). Overall, 50% of the coded entries were authored during the Fall, 24% during the Winter, and 26% during the Spring. Fifty six percent of novice teacher entries were authored during the Fall, 22% during the Winter, and 22% during the Spring. For advisors, the comparable figures were 40% (Fall), 27% (Winter), and 33% (Spring). Figures 6 and 7 display the patterns of journal entries over the course of the school year for advisors and teachers.

Figure 6. Percentage of Journal Entries

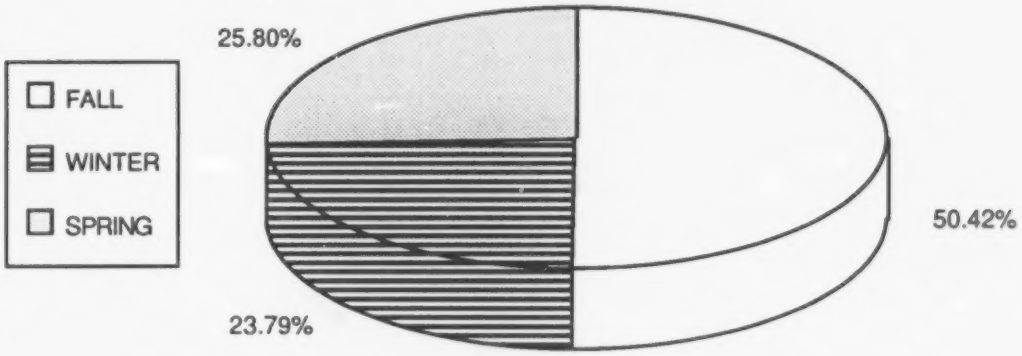
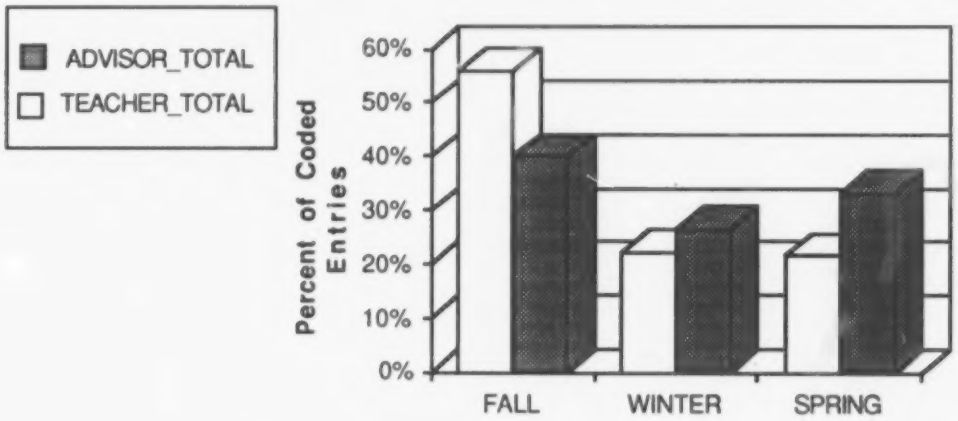


Figure 7. Percentage of Journal Entries



Figures 8, 9, and 10 provide additional data and comparisons for first and second year journals by showing the percentage of entries reflecting each theme.

Figure 8. Journal Entry Domains: First Year

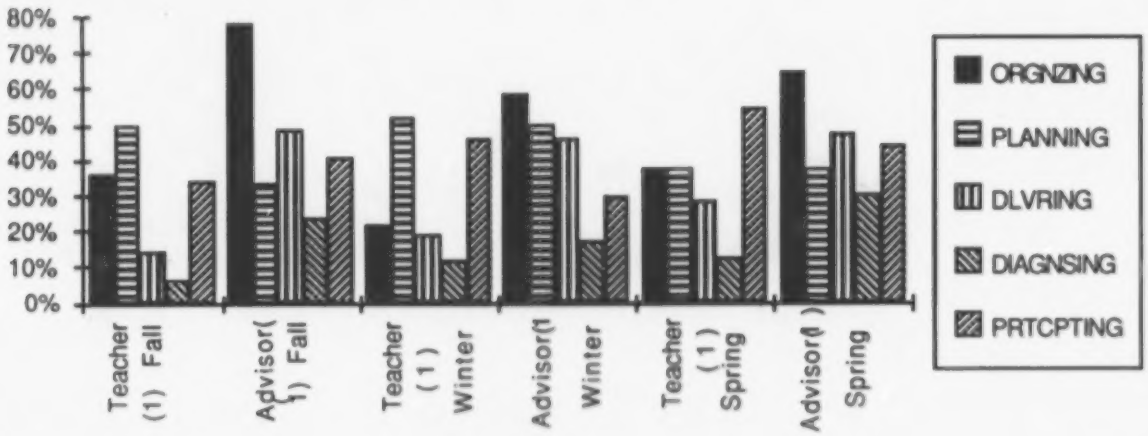


Figure 9. Journal Entry Domains: Second Year

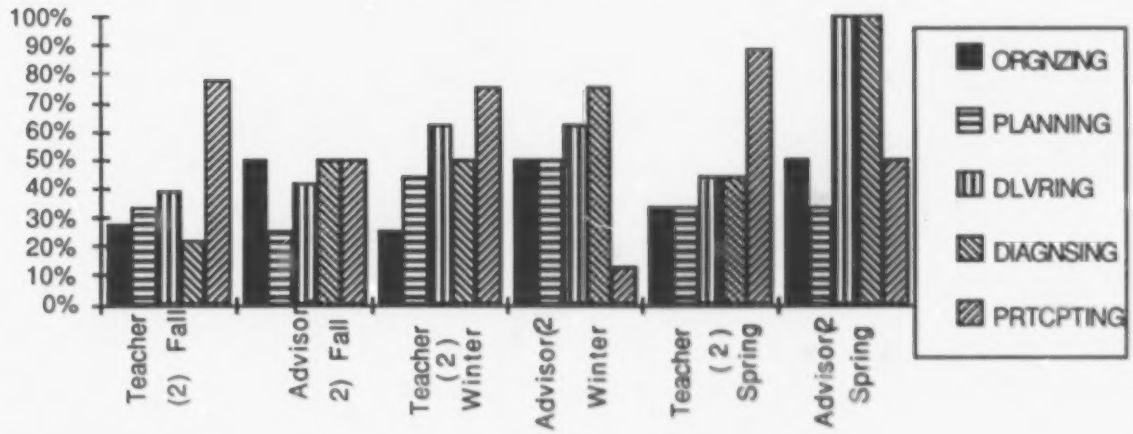
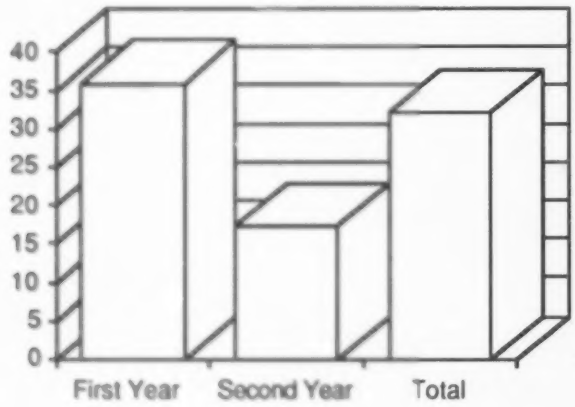


Figure 10. Journal Entry Domains: First & Second Year Teachers

Styles of Journal Use

Figure 11 shows the pattern of mean entries per journal for first year, second year, and all journals.

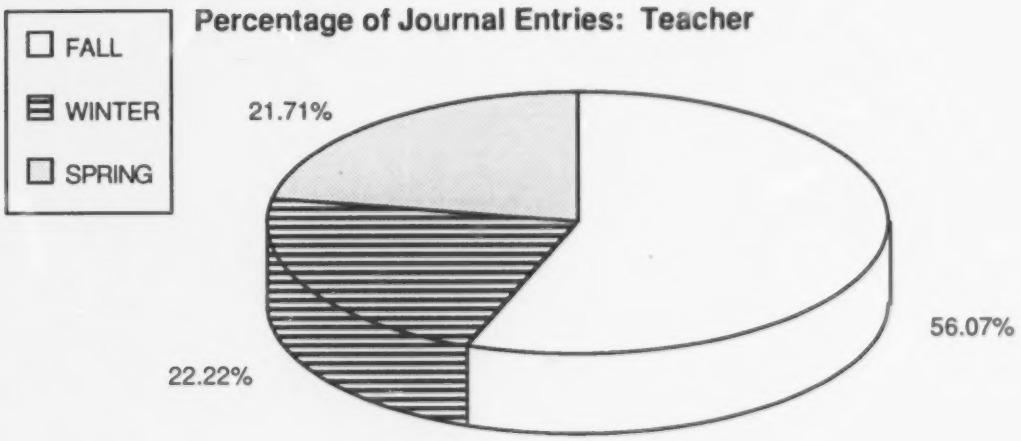
Figure 11. Average Number of Entries Per Journal



A total of 643 journal entries were coded from the 20 journals we received. The average number of entries per journal was 32.15. The average number of entries for first and second year journals was 35.87 and 17.25 respectively.

First year teachers utilized the interactive journal twice as much as second year teachers. Nevertheless, all participants made over 50% of their journal entries during the first three months of the school year (see Figure 6).

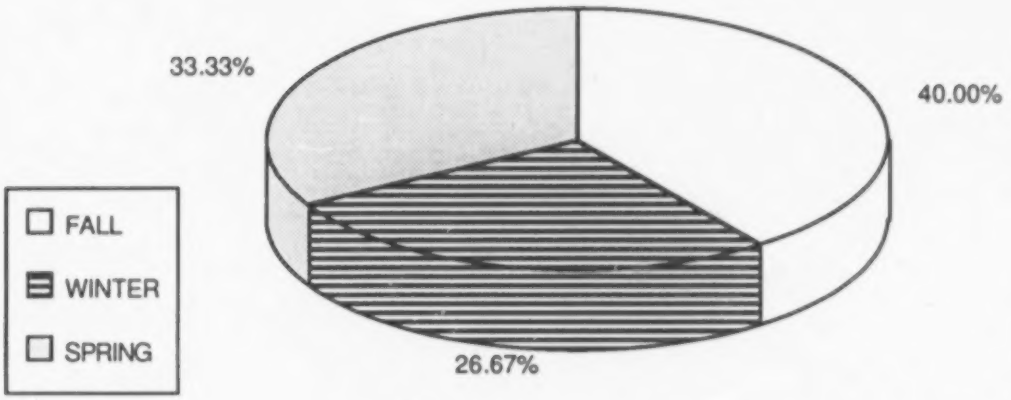
Figure 6



Novice teacher entries dropped off dramatically after the Fall quarter. Advisor entries also decreased after the Fall quarter, but increased slightly toward the end of the year (see Figure 7).

Figure 7

Percentage of Journal Entries: Advisor



Tables 2 and 3 display entry type data for first and second year teacher entries. As can be seen from the tables, a majority of entries involved either statements and/or reflections about salient topics. Very few direct requests for assistance were reflected in novice teacher entries. Most of the journals seem to have been used by teachers as a forum for presenting ideas and reflecting on salient issues.

Table 2

PROPORTIONS OF TEACHER ENTRIES: FIRST YEAR JOURNALS

	Organizing	Planning	Delivering	Diagnosing	Participating
Request for Assistance	0.0	0.02	0.01	0.0	0.02
Statement or Reflection	0.28	0.39	0.12	0.09	0.32
Request & Statement	0.04	0.07	0.04	0.01	0.05

Table 3

PROPORTIONS OF TEACHER ENTRIES: SECOND YEAR JOURNALS

	Organizing	Planning	Delivering	Diagnosing	Participating
Request for Assistance	0.02	0.05	0.0	0.0	0.05
Statement or Reflection	0.19	0.26	0.48	0.36	0.67
Request & Statement	0.07	0.07	0.02	0.02	0.1

In general, novice teachers used the journal in one of two ways. The majority of teachers used it as a forum for expressing their concerns and reflections about daily experiences in the classroom. This style tended to be more dialogic, and was associated with advisors who used the journal more actively. Relatively fewer teachers, on the other hand, used the journal as a notebook for planning and

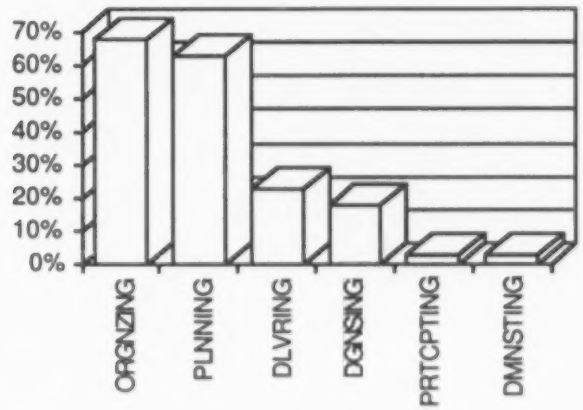
designing instruction and classroom organization. Some teachers a greater proportion of other forms of support, and therefore did not utilize the journal very much at all.

There was some variation in the ways that advisors used the journal as well. Some advisors wrote rather extensive entries on a regular basis. Their entries typically addressed a wide variety of topics and could be characterized as relatively substantial. Others seemed to place less emphasis on the journal, and responded superficially to teacher entries by writing in the margins. Perhaps these advisors emphasized other means of support and assessment. It is not clear how the various styles of journal use emerged over the course of the year. Our sense is that one of the participants tended to take the lead in initiating a pattern of use, which was typically carried out over the course of the year. On the other hand, certain styles did appear to be characteristic of specific advisors. Thus, while the ways that interactive journals were used was almost certainly a function of both teacher and advisor preference, it is possible that advisors played a relatively more influential role in determining the general style.

ILP Comparisons

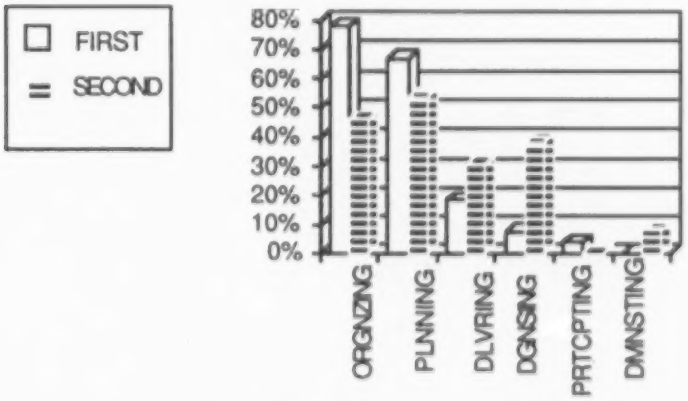
The percentages of domains identified in the ILP for the 20 teachers for whom interactive journals were coded were: 81% *organizing*, 75% *planning*, 13% *delivering*, and 13% *diagnosing*. The percentages for the total sample (n = 40) of ILP's were: 68% *organizing*, 63% *planning*, 23% *delivering*, 18% *diagnosing*, and 3% *participating* (3% *demonstrating*). Figure 12 displays these data.

Figure 12. ILP Domains: Total



The pattern of identified domains for first and second year teachers is shown in Figure 13. First year teachers focused almost exclusively on *organizing* and *planning*, whereas second year teachers' attention was spread more evenly across several domains, including *delivering* and *diagnosing*.

Figure 13. ILP Domains: First & Second Year



Comparing Figures 2 and 12, there appears to be a degree of correspondence between issues raised in the ILP and topics discussed in the interactive journal. One

thing that does stand out, however, is the lack of correspondence with respect to *participating*. In general, *participating* was not identified in the ILP, but in fact was a very salient topic throughout the school year in the interactive journal, especially for second year teachers (see Figure 10).

Conclusion

The interactive journal appears to be a forum in which novice teachers and their advisors carry out a dialogue regarding salient topics as they arise in daily classroom life. The present analysis has identified some of the important issues, as well as some stylistic differences in how the interactive journal was used. We have also shown some correspondence between the ILP and interactive journal. All of the results, however, should be considered tentative due to the non-systematic sample of journals and ILP's.

However, if the interactive journals and the individual learning plans are to be used at all as a record of the processes of support and assessment, greater comparability across cases would need to be achieved. This could only be accomplished by achieving advisor consensus about the format and expectations for these documents, a consensus established early in the operating year, and verified by subsequent periodic comparing of records, and mutual assistance in interpreting and executing the standards.

VI

BTSA as a Community of Practice: an Interpretative Perspective

An interpretive perspective attempts to uncover meaning from the point of view of the actor rather than from the perspective of an evaluator or researcher. As we learned more about overall program and how advisors were selected, prepared, and how they worked with teachers, we were prepared to also examine the way BTSA's social organization accounted for advisors' and other participants interpretations and actions. The program was organized by contexts, by which we mean the venues, interactions, and activity intended to influence teaching.

Contexts

The first major context for practice and interacting was the BTSA program itself. The program context encompassed all its participants, and constituted their learned and shared standards, and their knowledge base for believing, acting, and judging the actions of others. The program context included the official Consortium organization, and so included school principals, superintendents, teachers, advisors, and evaluators . The advisors formed a subcontext within the major context, a group interacting regularly to inform and improve advisors' support and assessment practice. A third subcontext was the advisor-teacher relationship, provided by the regular meetings of those dyads, and also by the regular meetings of the "seminars," that included teachers and advisors as a large group. The advisors' subcontext is encompassed entirely by the program setting, while the advisor and teacher relationship subcontext is situated in large part in the school setting. The school setting was a major context as a venue and an influence on relating and practice. The contexts and subcontexts each provided specific opportunities and constraints on the

participants' interaction and practice. Each context varied not only in its setting, but also in its work expectations, beliefs, attitudes, and shared knowledge.

In this interpretive analysis, we draw on a variety of data, including some which has not yet been reported. These data arise from our observations of the program personnel in action--in seminars, consortia meetings, planning meetings, and individual interviews. These are participant observations that are invaluable in understanding the program operation from the perspectives of the participants intentions and values. In this analysis, we attempt to interweave these observations, and our interpretations of them, with the more formal analyses reported above.

According to Erickson (1986), the task of interpretive research is to discover how the opportunities and constraints of social contexts relate to the activities of individual participants in making choices and conducting social action. For BTSA, this means discovering how the choices and actions of all the participants constituted a program and became a learning environment. The opportunities and constraints in the BTSA contexts and subcontexts were factors in shaping the ways participants chose to enact their roles and participate in the community of learners.

Program Context

The BTSA program goals are to establish collegial partnerships in an effort to support beginning teachers, encourage reflection and professional growth, and create links among teaching, learning, and assessment. The program seeks to encourage teachers' self-awareness particularly in regard to their own progress and to move teachers towards greater levels of autonomy. The program identifies its key task as accurate assessment of each teacher's developmental course for the purposes of assisting teachers to independent effective practice. Structures for assisting teachers include support and assessment activities conducted principally

by advisors in relationship with teachers. Support activities include teacher meetings, seminars, and release days focused on reflection time, observation, planning, and workshops on topics such as diversity. Support providers also use the Continuum of Teacher Developmental Behaviors to inform and encourage teachers' directions for growth. Other products of their work provide some opportunities for assessment and some record of it. These include learning plans, interactive journals, activity logs, teaching videotapes, student work samples, artifacts/evidences representing teachers' goals, checklists, rating scales, reviews and, for the second year teachers, professional projects.

The program context purposefully maximizes opportunities to work for program goals. The shared knowledge and expectations for accomplishing the program goals profoundly shape what participants perceive, act upon, and judge in every context (Erickson, 1968). Program norms shape the type of relating BTSA advisors chose in their contacts with teachers. When working totally within this program context, advisors had the greatest opportunity to provide non-judgmental and social support to teachers. For example, the following interactive journal excerpt from early fall shows a responsive advisor developing positive affect with a frustrated sixth grade mathematics teacher:

> 10.12
> Dear Teacher-
> I enjoyed your first period math. Your lessons are really relevant. I support you in using replacement units. Students seem much more interested in the content. The math book can be a support or supplement.
> Your task is overwhelming - so much paper work, management systems, etc. Just know you are doing a great job. Your rules and procedures are clear. Your students obviously love you. Who wouldn't?
> I look forward to seeing you this Thursday to set up observation days and network.

BTSA fosters enhanced professional relating as a means to influence teachers in ways that scaffold them to improve practice and provide reflective feedback. In the following excerpt just after the start of school, the same advisor provides specific feedback for what worked well in the lesson and how the teacher can continue to improve. The positive affect and collegiality in the exchange is clear:

> Dear Teacher,
> Your [period 4] transitions are very smooth- warm-up is in place. You walk them through clearly how to proceed. you state what needs to be out on their desk & check for understanding "stamp sheet." You avoid neg. comments from your "favorite student" & you move on efficiently - You are extremely clear and positive. Students seem very safe & clear. . . .You're doing a fantastic job of organizing your classroom - They were al on task during that first part of class which in many other classes is very hectic. Most seemed to have their stamp sheet. Even Charles was on task. Yeah!
>
> -Hands, eyes, ears really works w/ this class. They really do respond. It's a great quiet signal.
>
> If students are not yet done with the warm-up- do they take this for homework?
>
> You set the time . . 25 min. . . with incentive to get out early.. You state how each person must have their own paper although they work together. You have them write down volume & surface area. You state this 10 times at least. You walk around to make sure they are all writing it down. You walk them through the first probe. It is amazing how many times it takes to repeat the directions. What you did was perfect - stopping and having them listen for clarification. It's okay not to complete the assignment if clarification takes more time than expected. They are almost there with you. They still need practice "following directions". Great examples of surface areas/the eraser.
>
> You are reaching your students. You are presenting new challenging curriculum for your students. It takes time to understand, Change takes time.
>
> It's really essential for transitional students to give visual clues which you are doing with the rods. Don't worry about going slow. It's not going to hurt faster learners. It's good to feel like they already know it. It reinforces the skill. Teaching means flexibility.

Advisor Context

Induction as a BTSA advisor meant joining a community of well-informed peers that met regularly to interact and jointly plan action. BTSA Advisors were selected for their inquiry based teaching approach, their sense of teacher as learner, their experience with diverse students, interest in mentoring beginning teachers, and some preference given to bilingualism. As a group, advisors met regularly and most had common experiences teaching methods courses in UCSC's preservice teacher education program. In practice, advisors nurtured novices emotionally and provided support through observations, reflective conversations, portfolio development, interactive journals, and the Continuum of Teacher Development Behaviors. Advisors modeled and encouraged teachers in reflective conversations face to face and in seminar presentations.

The advisors shared an experience and knowledge base and held common perspectives on effective instruction for diverse students. In the following excerpts from interactive journals, though different advisors write to their teachers, the quality, specificity, and scaffolding intent is similar:

> Dear Teacher,
> Points really seem to be working with all of your classes.
> Great smooth transition into countdown activity. You walked and talked them through the calculator activity. you reinforce how important it is to record their work. it's definitely worthwhile to have students say the procedure to check for understanding. Good use of time by setting a limit. Also it's helpful to know how the paper will look and what you will do after the 15 minutes are over.

> 9.26.94 Dear Teacher,
> . . . And from what I can see you exude a confident & firm presence with your new class! You have lots of "Squirrely" children & you really go with their energy, yet you are always challenging them to focus. What I mean by that is when they are getting antsy on the rug, you have them "put a finger on your chin if .. . " You involve their bodies with a cognitive task. Social skills building is obviously a necessary component for this group-taking turns, listening attentively, etc.!
> Great follow through with Josh (who pulled someone's arm). You are loving , positive and yet you follow through consistently with your expectations consequences.

10.28, Dear Teacher,
The kids really have their A.M. routines down well. They look so confident with leading the flag salute and doing calendar and weather.

I remember you'd said that moving kids to their groups had sometimes not gone as smoothly as you'd like. They did very well today with little confusion. I'd suggest that el grup cate have some kind of activity - a transition to do while they wait for Federico; you could post some printing practice on a paper over the white board or give them some other written work.

The other kids are such proficient writers. Do they have a chance to share their stories with each other?

In classroom teaching, teacher and students work towards lesson goals producing shared experience, understanding, and some degree of intersubjectivity. In the same way, advisors collaborating with other advisors about supporting teachers develop common understandings and shared values. Erickson (1986) refers to intersubjectivity as evolving convergence in individuals' points of view. Joint productive activity increases the overlap of individuals' perspectives and choices and actions participants enact accomplish a product or goal and, as a result, reflect shared meaning. Participants in their interaction together are able to construct themselves as a community of learners sharing perspectives, meaning, and forms of practice.

BTSA advisors' intersubjectivity is distinctive to the group participants. It flourished in the program and is subject to few constraints to its evolution. Individuals retain some difference in points of view but the specific content of the shared understandings at any given time are unique to the group. Given the opportunity of BTSA's social organization, its imbeddedness in the larger program context, and the absence of external constraints, it is to be expected that the data analysis of the Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices Survey indicate slight variability in the advisors' scores on the survey. It is not surprising that all the

scores of the advisors exceeded the overall mean for all the subscales with one exception.

Even more interesting, in the data analyses of Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices Survey, are the general trends in the data across advisors' and cohort groups. As we reported above, "the general pattern of results for self-perceptions of instructional practices was one in which preservice teachers-in-training either scored the same on the pre-and posttests, or scored higher on the post-test than on the measure administered at the beginning of the year. In contrast, as with the motivational beliefs mentioned earlier, the trend was for BTSA participants to score lower over time, with regard to differences between pre- and posttest responses. In some instances, the pre- to post differences did not attain significance for Year 1 cohort but they tended to be significant for Year 2."

These results can be viewed in terms of the choices and actions participants make within their social organizational structures. Participants' choices and actions are shaped by the opportunities and constraints available in contexts--in the sense of work conditions, expectations, settings, and local, bureaucratic and/or institutional norms. In the case of the advisors, as with the Preservice Cohort, the participants' contexts are imbedded entirely in program. The Preservice Cohort context in the university greatly overlaps with the BTSA program context. The social organization for both allows participants to interact regularly, and of course intersubjectivity is fostered: Recurrent and joint productive activity merges individually differing viewpoints into common understandings. Few constraints (of competing values, understandings, and norms) impinge on the advisor or preservice groups. This increases the participants' opportunity to interpret meaning in terms of program contexts. Not surprisingly, these groups appear similar. The implications of the data for the Year 1 and 2 cohorts will be discussed in the following section.

Advisor/Teacher Context

> Dear Advisor,
>
> I'm feeling burnt out!!! I'm having a hard time teaching unmotivated students! I'm really tired of it! I need help! Soon. I'm just not sure I'm in the right job."

> Dear Advisor,
>
> I just want to take a minute to say thank you for all the help you have given me over the past two months. I feel so fortunate to have you as an advisor - you are full of great ideas, you are always so positive and caring and you know how to cut right to the heart of the matter and get 4 hours worth of work (for me!) done in a fraction of the time. Your expertise has been invaluable to me - thank you with all my heart!

BTSA placed high value on positive affect and social support in the sense of advisors tending to teachers' emotional needs as in the following example:

> Now it's also important to do something nice for yourself also - A walk, run, ice cream, beach, etc. When we feel relaxed and rested, the classwork seems to go so much smoother.

The advisor continues the comment to build the teacher's confidence in her performance. One sentence praises the teacher for reviewing rules and procedures in the following excerpt.

> It's nice to walk into your room with the lights off. I think it's soothing. You really have a great style with your students. your a natural! I like the way you reviewed the rules an procedures. You really had the students' full attention. You have a really pleasant but firm presence which students really seem to respect.

In the following excerpts teacher and advisor exchange messages through the interactive journal about the topic of their work together. The teacher reports to the Advisor in the message. The advisor serves as another pair of eyes in the

classroom validating the success of the students' independent work and taking interest in the activities.

> 4.24.94 Teacher: .you're here for Writer's Workshop time again. Which is good for me because you are a good model on giving the kids help and feedback on their writing. I've introduced some of the changes you suggested, but maybe a little more slowly than you would have. Martha and I do a short mini lesson each time now. Today I want to talk about beginning, middle and end. We've done it a little bit before, but I can see from their writing that they don't all have it.
>
> I also had them practice giving more specific feedback during author's chair. I used 4 of the gambits to start with. Martha thought it was way too much all at once and that we should just introduce one a day. I don't think I agree because they are not all going to want to say the same thing about a book. Also, I expect to have to coach them along for awhile before they are all using the gambits. To me they are just examples for them to use as models. If they can give great feedback without memorizing them, well that's great, too.
>
> Advisor: Hi! Writer's Workshop is going so well! I saw lots of students working independently (& quietly) at their desks. It left me free to conference with/students who needed it & to intervene if students were too chatty..I think this is a smooth transition from table groups to independent writing & conference sign-ups. I love that children are pairing up to write bilingual books! I noticed that many students keep writing past the 1:50 time. those who moved on to other activities did so quietly & with engagement. The writing centers looks great. I saw children writing on the chalkboard, reading letters on the wall. Everyone put their folders away neatly! They are in the groove with this
>
> Sounds like the mini-lessons with Martha are going well. You must be doing some work with periods, because children knew what it was used for. Beginning, middle, end is an important story writing concept and it's great o introduce it now & to reinforce it continually till the end of the year with read alouds.
>
> By next week, you'll have even more of an idea about how the gambits are working. I think the coaching will influence their use - and it'll be interesting to hear how they use the prompts -

Teachers reach out for immediate support advisors can give for classroom practice as in the following teacher's interactive journal example:

> "I need to work on ESL lessons. I have problems with my kids speaking English. They seem to be scared to speak English. . . .

The interactive journals could be a zoom lens on advisor/teacher relating. Unfortunately this year entries were irregular and piecemeal. More complete entries and more balance in the teacher and advisor entries would increase this method's value for tracking teacher growth and advisor support.

Teachers reported that BTSA's strongest support came from the seminars given by advisors after school on a regular basis. In seminar, topics such as reflective conversations, alternative assessment, outcomes based planning, rubrics, portfolios, among others were presented and discussed. The networking and validating provided by the occasion were highly valued by the teachers. Teacher participation in the seminars included sharing strategies such as Writer's Workshop, successful lesson material, anecdotes, and other ideas in the seminars.

One way advisors organized to assess and support teachers was through the use of the assessment instruments such as the Continuum and the individual learning plan. For example, advisors use strategies such as peer coaching, simulations, and demonstrations to encourage more effective instruction for language minority students. In conversation reflecting on strategies and teaching challenges, teacher and advisor share perspectives and approximate each other's points of view. Intersubjectivity is sought in this manner and supported by other program activities like seminars, arranged observations representing BTSA program values and norms. Advisors use their brief meeting time with teachers to interact, model, and problem solve and assist teachers improved practice.

Advisors also provided support through in-flight responding to situations as they occurred in the journal entries and in face to face conversations. (This

issue will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.) The following interactive journal entry provides an example of the relationship of advisor and teacher, assessment as in-flight and responsive, and the transition to assistance provided by the advisor:

> "The kids' books are coming along beautifully. Their independent writing is really impressive. The third grade teachers will be so grateful! You may want to take a closer look at those who aren't keeping up. Sometimes they are surrounded by kids who are all finished and so can socialize more. They get drawn into the conversation and don't get much done. You have some extra space where they can be left alone to concentrate. For the early finishers you can offer an art center or listening to stories as a reward or just a change of pace."

The advisor and teacher context is one that overlaps program and school contexts. In this respect, the activity of advisors and teachers in making choices and acting were constructing a learning environment incorporating much more than BTSA program values, knowledge, norms. For the advisor/teacher context, the BTSA program content with its specific commitments and knowledge was a strong influence on teachers through the advisors. Other influences from the school context--working conditions, the principal, teacher next door, the community, colleagues' individual histories--diluted BTSA's impact. These other influences can be interpreted as constraints in the context, encroaching on or impeding gains that must undergird effective practice. The BTSA process, particularly in terms of quantity of advisor-teacher context, is insufficient to counter the constraints of the school context, and thus on the teachers' interpretation of meaning, their choices and their actions in the classroom. In Newmann's (1993) terms, the BTSA program, like other contemporary reform initiatives, attempts to engage content, but <u>linkage</u> remains unaddressed. Effective linkages across contexts have yet to be established. Even within the school context, linkages are primitive. Linkages of the BTSA program, the

University pre-service program, the advisor-teacher relationships, the schools is a worthy but difficult goal, that deserves serious thought and planning for the future. Nevertheless, in a general networking-and-communicating sense, BTSA's attempts to link the communities that affect teachers was successful, and provides a foundation for further work of linkage in an institutional sense as well.

Conclusion

As teachers were increasingly subject to school context constraints (work conditions in schools, principal's expectations, etc.) and decreasingly available for BTSA interaction, joint activity, intersubjectivity and shared perspectives between teacher and advisor may have eroded. As time is brief for recurrent meetings to interact and plan social action, opportunity and capacity to assimilate BTSA's knowledge base through the advisor diminishes.

In the data analyses of Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices Survey, the trend was for BTSA teachers to score lower over time, with respect to the teaching practices advocated by the BTSA community of practice. Such a decline would be expected from the context-analysis provided above. That is, the decline may relate to the effects of context constraints, reduced activity in BTSA, and consequent BTSA content dilution. If this is the case, it argues for increasing the opportunities in these contexts to match those in the contexts, preservice and advisors, that are successful for attaining intersubjectivity, shared values, and forms of practice. It also supports an approach to teacher assistance through establishing linkages across contexts.

VII

The Relationship Between Assessment and Support: Theory and Practice

How is assessment related to support in this BTSA project? Effective assessment must be conducted in a way that can be consistent with the historical values and operations that made the Santa Cruz New Teacher Project a leading edge program. What forms of assessment would not violate those operations? What forms of documentation would provide evidence for the interplay of assessment and support? What forms of assessment would actually guide effective support? The answers to these questions have become clearer as the year has progressed. We now will attempt to clarify those issues, so that we can formalize assessment next year, and develop means of documenting and analyzing assessment data, as well as its relationship to support.

During the year, BTSA has evolved a consistent and coherent position about the relationship between assessment and support. Before discussing the concrete operations that we propose for next year's documentation, it is necessary to examine the philosophy and theory that has historically characterized the New Teacher Project. We will move from that theoretical position to its implications for assessment.

What Assessment and Support Should Not Be

In the most simplified way of thinking about relating assessment to support, teaching is a simple set of acts that can be conceptualized in advance, assessed like a diagnosis, and treated with a plan. In this view, as Bird & Little (1986) say,

> "teaching can be assessed with an observation form . . . (and) the results of teaching can be checked by standardized achievement tests. . . .
>
> "In another view, teaching is a complex, humane activity at which a teacher can grow steadily more proficient over years by disciplined

> curiosity, continuous training, and skillful assistance. Teachers can be supported and evaluated by persons who join with them in mastering and advancing the craft . . . " (Bird & Little, 1986, pps. 507-508).

What Assessment and Support Can and Should Be

Until the present time there has been no theory or model of schooling that deals with teaching as this 'complex and humane activity,' and that simultaneously integrates the support and assessment of teachers' performances. However, such a theory has now been provided by an emerging perspective on education and development, called the sociocultural perspective (see Tharp & Gallimore, Rousing Minds to Life, 1989). Based on a Vygotskian theory of human development, the theory provides guidance both to the activities of support, and to the kinds of assessment most appropriate to teacher induction.

The Theoretical Position: Teaching as Assisted Performance

Assisted performance defines what a learner can do with the support of others. For Vygotsky, the contrast of assisted and unassisted performance identified the critical locus of development and learning which he called the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

It is conventional and correct to assess a learner's "developmental" level by the ability to solve problems unassisted--this is the familiar assumption of standardized assessment. The true degree of learning, however, exceeds the reach of what can be performed alone. The total reach of competence must be located by assessing those additional problems that a learner can solve with social support and assistance.

The distance between a learner's individual capacity and her capacity to perform with assistance or support is called the zone of proximal development. The "ZPD" is defined as:

> *The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by individual problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through*

> *problem solving with support or in collaboration* The zone of proximal development defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an embryonic state. These functions could be termed the "buds" or "flowers" of development rather than the "fruits" of development. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86, italics original)

There is no single ZPD for each individual. For any domain of skill, a zone of proximal development can be created. Whatever the activity, in the zone of proximal development assistance is provided by a supporting expert, or a more capable peer. For the child in the classroom, this support/assistance is provided by the teacher, or sometimes by more capable peers. For the New Teacher, this support/assistance is provided by the advisor. Through this assistance,

> . . . learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement. (Vygotsky,1978, p. 90)

Identifying the proximal zone by contrasting supported versus unsupported performance has profound implications for educational practice. It is in the ZPD that teaching may be defined. In Vygotskian terms, teaching is good only when it ""awakens and rouses to life those functions which are in a stage of maturing, which lie in the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1956, p. 278, quoted in Wertsch & Stone, 1985, italics original).

Thus, following Vygotsky, we can have a general definition of teaching: teaching consists of assisting performance through the Zone of Proximal Development. Teaching can be said to occur when assistance is offered at points in the ZPD at which performance requires assistance. (Tharp & Gallimore, 1989).

Vygotsky's own available work principally discusses children, but identical processes can be seen operating in the learning adult, such as New Teachers. Recognition of this fact allows the creation of effective programs for teacher training, and offers guidance for organizational management of systems of assistance.

Responsive Support

In the transition from beginning to expert skills, there need to be variations in the means and patterns of expert assistance to the learner. At the earlier phases, support is frequent and elaborate. Later it occurs less often. Expert assistance should be responsive to the new teacher's level of performance. In the earliest stages, when the teacher does not fully comprehend the purpose of an activity (such as some step in classroom management) or see the connection between component steps, advisor help tends to be relatively narrow in focus. As the teacher's comprehension and skill increases, advisors begin to abbreviate their help If the truncated guidance fails, the advisor may add additional information, testing to find the minimum level of support the teacher needs to proceed. This continual adjustment of the level and amount of help is responsive to the teacher's level of performance and perceived need. Supporting advisors need to keep in mind the overall goal of the training, to stay related to what the teacher is trying to do. New information or suggestions are made relevant to furthering the teacher's current goal, and at the same time furthering the overall goal of professional advancement.

This tuning of advisor support requires subtle and continuous assessment, embedded in the ongoing interaction. This assessment often appears as negotiations of the division of labor; when the teacher lets the advisor know that she needs some help, this provides assessment information that the teacher is in the Zone of Proximal Development and needs assistance to continue

development. This form of assessment is absolutely vital to continued teacher development, and can never be replaced by objective, fixed-time standardized assessment, such as structured observations with a priori categories. The latter cannot provide guidance for responsive support within the ZPD. When the development of independent teacher skill is the goal, support provided by the advisor must be responsive, contingent, and patient. The advisor graduates the assistance, responsive to the teacher's performance level: the more the teacher can do, the less the advisor does . This requires on-going, in-flight assessment by the advisor. That is because effective consultation can be said to occur only when support is offered at points in the ZPD at which performance requires assistance. The careful assessment of the child's teacher's abilities, relative to the ZPD and the developmental level, is a constant requirement for the advisor.

Assisted performance is extremely common in the interactions of parents and children. Sadly, it is uncommon in ordinary classrooms between teacher and students. Study after study has documented the absence in classrooms of assistance provided by more capable others that is responsive to goal-directed activities (Tharp & Gallimore, 1989). It is even more rare in support provided to beginning professional teachers. Why?

To provide assistance in the ZPD, the advisor must be in close touch with the teacher's relationship to the task. Sensitive and accurate assistance that challenges but does not dismay the learner cannot be done in the absence of assessment information. Opportunities for this knowledge, conditions in which the advisor can be sufficiently aware of the teacher's actual, in-flight performing, are difficult to arrange and expensive to provide. And even if there is time to assess each teacher's ZPD for each task, more time is needed--time for interaction, conversation, time for joint activity between teacher and advisor.

This is what our BTSA program attempts to provide. It is most important that induction into the profession take place in this way, because only if teachers are mentored through responsive support will they be able to bring responsive support to students in their classrooms. For pedagogical skills to be acquired depends on training and development experiences which few teachers encounter--opportunity to observe effective examples and effective practitioners of assisted performance; and opportunities to practice nascent skills, to receive video and audio feedback, and to have the gentle, competent "coaching" of a skilled advisor. Teachers themselves must have their performance assisted if they are to acquire the ability to assist the performance of their students.

An indispensable activity setting for assisting teacher performance is the conference in which a advisor and teacher confer over negotiated goals for professional improvement. Mutually choosing goals for development, through conversation and negotiation, is necessary for teachers to perceive supervisory assistance as helpful (Levin, Hoffman, & Badiali, 1986). These authors also report that teachers need to be observed enough so that they feel the advisor's impressions to be representative. In the BTSA system, most advisors observe their teachers regularly, most often weekly.

During the conference the teacher and advisor meet to discuss the feedback based on the advisor's observations, to decide on the next goals for the teacher's own learning, and to work cooperatively in planning for the students in the classroom.

Of course, simply establishing a policy on using observation and conferences is not enough. The outcome will be determined by the manner in which such settings are implemented. A teacher advisor must establish a working relationship, be sensitive to feedback from the trainee (that is not always explicit), and be flexible in suggesting new actions.

To what extent can a advisor be expected to revise and adjust plans based on the new teacher's responses? The literature suggests that teachers follow pre-selected scripts and activities, and seldom alter lesson plans "in-flight." This is almost certainly true of most advisors also. Some writers even suggest that no teacher or advisor can be expected to think and decide "in-flight" because of the information load they bear.

Yet, by definition, responsive consulting requires in-flight adjustments. They are necessary if the teacher is to be assisted in the zone of proximal development, because it is not possible to always anticipate what ideas and knowledge new teachers will bring to a task.

How, then, should a advisor respond to on-going assessment information, in an on-going supportive relationship that has long-term goals? How can she move toward pre-established objectives and at the same time be responsive to teachers' immediate needs? Getting these two aims in balance is not easy.

According to our theory, this can be achieved by following several guidelines. The first and most important is that the advisor context (see the previous chapter) must be established as a cooperating "community of learners" who meet together and offer each other responsive assistance. This is a way of helping each other through the "ZPD for learning how to advise." This learning community appears to have been successfully created, and it is a source of program strength. *Advisors confer together about their "evidence" for teacher needs, and support one another in devising responsive and creative forms of assistance for the new teachers.*

As for as the direct advisor support of teachers, there are four basic principles that can make good, responsive advising more likely. They are:

1. The advisor teaches by providing several different means of assistance.

2. The advisor provides assistance by organizing the task into appropriate goals and subgoals.

3. The advisor's responsibility for task performance steadily declines, with a corresponding increase in the apprentice's proportion of responsibility.

4. The advisor's relationship with the apprentice must be supportive, responsive, and lead to common ways of thinking and feeling--what psychologists call intersubjectivity.

Intersubjectivity--The Necessary Condition for Change

Early in induction, a new teacher may not conceptualize the goal of the activity in the way that the advisor does. Intersubjectivity must evolve. With the increasing experience of working together, intersubjectivity will be achieved, a common vocabulary will emerge, and they will come to see teaching in the same ways. This shifting of goals and sub-goals--toward increasing intersubjectivity--is essentially the same in parent-child interaction (Saxe, Gearhart, & Guberman, 1984), and is the same in responsive classroom teaching (Tharp & Gallimore, 1989). Developing intersubjectivity is absolutely necessary for effective consultation.

Yet achieving intersubjectivity is difficult, particularly in a condition when one of the partners is highly stressed, or when the advisor-teacher relationship context is itself stressful or highly evaluative. As Fullan's (1985) evaluation of successful teaching innovations clearly indicates, even in successful programs, innovation and change always cost time, anxiety and uncertainty. To develop competencies and programs under this stress, it is essential that teachers have supportive interaction with their advisors and supervisors. Programs trying to innovate must provide interaction in particular ways that reduce anxiety, encourage persistence in the face of difficulty, as well as provide specific forms of assistance and support..

A 'Bad' Example: Objectified, Distanced Assessment

As a negative example, of using "objectified" and "distanced" means of assessment and support, Sloat, Tharp, & Gallimore (1977) conducted an experiment with new teachers conducted according to the "assess, prescribe, and assess again" model, applied to five newly hired teachers for 16 weeks. For each teacher, a specific goal for improvement was selected. Direct assessment of the new teachers was provided by live observation of their teaching, and then feedback (via graphs of classroom performance) was provided each day with individuals' goals marked on each graph, showing clearly the extent to which the observed rate of behavior matched the goal. A substantial increase in desired teaching behavior occurred when graph feedback was combined with specific goals.

Although good improvements were achieved during feedback with explicit goals stated by the advisor, the teachers responded negatively to the procedure: They reported feeling great pressure to perform, so much that they were unable to concentrate on other aspects of their teaching. This method actually interfered with other vital teaching functions.

The authors stated that they "learned to make joint goal-setting a routine part of the advisor-teacher interaction." In other words, they adjusted their support program to allow for in-flight observation and negotiation of the goals

In this same program, some years later, Tharp & Gallimore (1989), reported that "only after much research, many errors, hard self-examination, and harder effort did the staff evolve an integrated system of teacher assistance that blends individualization, teacher involvement, teacher assessment, and a full range of means of support."

In short, objectified and distanced means of teacher assessment will interfere with the establishment of the intersubjectivity on which good support in

the ZPD depends. BTSA has consistently moved away from objectified and distanced assessment, and toward in-flight, responsive assessment that will guide immediate support within the ZPD.

Good Examples: Responsive, "In-Flight" Assessment

As an example of the kind of in-flight assessment that leads to decisions for responsive assistance, we offer the following extended example quoted from an Advisor's entry in the interactive journal. Her we see an interweaving of assessment information, decision making, and specific assistance. In this instance, the assessment information is entered in boldface; the assistance prescriptions are underlined:

> "The kids really have their A.M. routines down well. They look so confident with leading the flag salute and doing calendar and weather.
>
> **I remember you'd said that moving kids to their groups had sometimes not gone as smoothly as you'd like. They did very well today with little confusion.** I'd suggest that el grup cate have some kind of activity - a transition to do while they wait for Federico; you could post some printing practice on a paper over the white board or give them some other written work.
>
> The other kids are such proficient writers. Do they have a chance to share their stories with each other?
>
> 4.29
>
> **The kids books are coming along beautifully. Their independent writing is really impressive.** The third grade teachers will be so grateful! You may want to take a closer look at those who aren't keeping up. Sometimes they are surrounded by kids who are all finished and so can socialize more. They get drawn into the conversation and don't get much done. You have some extra space where they can be left alone to concentrate. For the early finishers you can offer an art center or listening to stories as a reward or just a change of pace.
>
> 5.13
>
> **Most of the kids really have the letter writing form down. They use much of the correct spacing and punctuation and proofread their spelling very well. They have a hard time**

finding logical pauses for sentences but that's normal for their age. You might add a few directed lessons on it though.

Many such examples occur throughout the advisors' interactive journal entries. Here we can see the typical alternation of in-flight thought processes: information gathered, assessment decisions made, and support offered. However, to adequately document the assessment/decision making/support sequences, it will be necessary that the Advisors themselves concentrate more on, and record more precisely, their observations and their own thought processes.

VIII

Recommendations

Program Recommendations

Our only general recommendation for adjusting the BTSA program in support calls for increasing the opportunities in the school context to match those in the contexts, preservice and advisors, that are successful for attaining intersubjectivity, shared values, and forms of practice. This would probably call for a major review of current BTSA practices, and would require continued thought and experimentation during next year. We do not suggest dropping the fine services already provided to new teachers, rather some effort might be made to organize those services in ways that provide for the social organization within the school contexts that would provide for the qualities of community and intersubjectivity that are well achieved within the Advisor context and the Pre-Service context. This would almost certainly require tighter linkages across contexts, such as having Advisors participate in Pre-Service, having Pre-Service faculty present in the schools, and achieving some greater sense of community among Advisors, Faculty, and Teachers across the various school contexts. The new Starlight Professional Developmental School may well provide such an experimental model, and close attention to this Starlight experience might illuminate organizational efforts available to BTSA generally. Another linkage effort could be to concentrate more time on Advisor-Building Principal relationships.

Another aspect of the Advisor and Pre-Service contexts that we have noted earlier in this report is their shared theoretical and philosophical views. These dimensions are an important part of intersubjectivity. It would be highly desirable to find some opportunities for Advisors and their new teachers to engage in conversation concerning the theoretical and philosophical underpinnings of practice. Without that assistance, without modeling the rational processes of theoretically grounded reflection, it seems unlikely that a majority of new teachers will continue to

develop this critical tool of professional development. We believe that these opportunities are likely to be found in-flight, as embedded in the interpretation of events provided in conversation, in the interactive journals, etc., as well as in formal seminars.

This building of linkages across contexts--from pre-service through advisors to Principals to the schools--would no doubt facilitate the development of the content, the vocabulary, and the habits of theoretically and philosophically grounded reflection.

Assessment/Evaluation Recommendations

Our recommendations for the improvement of assessment of teacher needs and competencies fall into two general types: the 1) organization of assessment, and the 2) methods of assessment.

The Organization of Assessment/Evaluation

Effective assessment/evaluation requires a genuine commitment by the BTSA administration and advisors to the processes and methods used. We recommend that in the future there be an early and detailed discussion, leading to consensus, about the goals, strategies, and methods of assessment/evaluation to be employed, of the priorities assigned to these activities, and of the timelines necessary for achieving the assessment/evaluation goals.

Even with the achievement of this consensus, there will need to be some training and modeling to the advisors to assure uniformity of record keeping, and indeed of sufficient uniformity of procedures to allow for comparability. The logs and interactive journals could be a zoom lens on advisor/teacher relating. Unfortunately this year entries were irregular and piecemeal. More complete entries and more balance in the teacher and advisor entries would increase this method's value for tracking teacher growth and advisor support.

The potential value of these Journals could easily be achieved. For example, some of the more experienced Advisors excel in the use of Interactive Journals. These skills need to be transmitted to the entire BTSA community.

In addition, if (for example) the interactive journals and the individual learning plans are to be used as a record of the processes of support and assessment, greater comparability across cases needs to be achieved. This could only be accomplished by achieving advisor consensus about the format and expectations for these documents, a consensus established early in the operating year, but also verified by subsequent periodic comparing of records, and mutual assistance in interpreting and executing the standards.

The Methods of Assessment/Evaluation

The challenge to "in-flight" assessment is adequate documentation. Because the assessments and the decisions based on those assessments are made in-flight, the documentation must also be very close to in-flight. This means that the advisors, who are also the assessors, must find some means of recording 1) the sources of their evidence for their assessments, and 2) their decisions about support that follow from those assessments.

Two forms of records have been used with some success. The first is a written record, in the form of an "assessment/decision journal," kept by each advisor for each teacher. The model for this form of record is the Medical Chart, kept by each doctor for each patient in a hospital, on which is written every piece of assessment information that is gathered by the doctor (or assistants) on that patient, together with all treatment decisions. In the educational context, this would require the advisor, immediately after every contact with the teacher, to enter a note about each piece of information that is pertinent to the kinds of assistance needed by the teacher. For example, it might contain observations made by the advisor in the teacher's classroom; it might have important remarks made by the teacher; it might record

certain passages from the teacher's journal. The criterion is evidence that is used for making support decisions.

A second model, which is more "in-flight" but is more expensive, and ultimately more difficult, is the audio-recording record. In this instance, the advisor keeps a small tape-recorder ready-to-hand during the work day, and as quickly as possible after the event, dictates the (same as above) information. Thus, these records can be made actually during classroom observations, or in the automobile while driving from the school, etc. The disadvantages to this kind of record is that it is an unfamiliar process; dictation requires some skill development itself; and transcribing and organizing the information is an additional and expensive process.

Is the greater immediacy of the dictation worth the additional difficulty of obtaining the information? A period of experimentation begin next year by dividing the advisors according to their preference into two groups, each using one of them. After a month of work, a decision could be made about the preferred format.

It would probably be best to specify some standard protocol for recording the assessment/decision processes for each teacher contact. For example, each entry might contain the following sections:

1. Information Gathered
    A. Where and How
    B. What Was It?
2. New or modified Learning Plan for the Teacher
3. Action Chosen
4. Follow-up intended

An example of such an entry might be something like this:

> 1) Visited Mary's class today, watched her presenting the lesson and then floated around the seat-work groups, saw most of the kids working. The kids really didn't get it, and I think it was because she didn't demonstrate on the board.

2) I'm going to drop back in my plans. She isn't quite ready for what I had intended (working on her floating assistance to the work-groups). I'll try to help her a bit on how to model the activities as well as give them the rules for the activities.

3) I left her a note in the journal to try to do a demo tomorrow. Told her I'd model it for her next time, if she wants me to.

4) Follow-up will be to call her during the week, and talk about it over the phone--see what she'd like me to do.

In any event, any form of in-flight recording will require some training, some practice, and some mutual support and comparison of records. Concentrating on "assessment information" does require a specific professional act, that is often handled intuitively by advisors (and by every teacher). The requirements to document in-flight assessment and decision making should not only help us better to understand this complex process, it should also improve the support decisions themselves.

We do urge that BTSA preserve some form of objective evaluation--that is, some information that flows directly from new teachers (or other clients--principals, other faculty, etc.) that is not filtered through the advisors themselves. For example, the quantitative data provided by the Teacher Beliefs and Self-Perceptions scale may have been startling, and not altogether pleasant to consider. But that information has illuminated a most important new consideration for BTSA. Preserving sources of information that are not ordinarily available to the Advisor context can eventually be a source of strength and program protection.

Finally, we draw attention to the dilemma that is inherent in this BTSA model of support/assessment, and indeed is a dilemma at every level of education. We have observed often in this document that maintaining a high quality of non-judgmental relationship between advisor and teacher is of first importance for BTSA participants. This is, of course, a desirable condition between every teacher/learner. However, this value has impeded the gathering of comparative data on emerging teacher competence. Is there a way to resolve

this dilemma, some way of obtaining "objective" comparable data about teacher performance, that will not sully the relationship? This may be the most important subject for future study.

REFERENCES

Bird, T., & Little, J. W. (1986). How schools organize the teaching profession. Elementary School Journal, 86(4), 493-512.

Combs, A.W. (1978). An educational imperative: the human dimension. Washington, D.C: National Educational Association. p.558.

Erickson, F. (1986). Qualitative Method in Research on Teaching. M.S. Wittrock, (Ed.) Handbook of Research on Teaching, Third Edition. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

Feiman-Nemser, S. & Parker, M.B. (1992) Mentoring in context: A comparison of two U.. programs for beginning teachers (Special Report). East Lansing: Michigan State University, National Center for Research on Teacher Education.

Harter, Susan. 1985. Manual for the self-perception profile for children. Denver: University of Denver.

Levin, J., Hoffman N., & Badiali, B. (1986). Rural teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of various supervisory practices. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

Little, J. W. (1990). The mentoring phenomenon and the social organization of teaching. Review of research in education (Vol. 16, pp.297-351) Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association

Lanier, Judith E. et.al. (1978). Research and development needs for the advancement of teacher education. Research Series No. 8 Michigan State University, East Lansing. Institute for Research on Teaching. 57 p. (ERIC Microfiche Collection, ED161859.

Newman, F.M. (1993). Beyond common sense in educational restructuring: The issues of content and linkage. Educational Researcher, 22(2), March.

Saxe, G. B., Gearhart, M., & Guberman, S. R. (1984). The social organization of early number development. In B. Rogoff & J. V. Wertsch (Eds.) Children's learning in the "zone of proximal development." New directions for child development (No. 23., pp. 19-30). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Shavelson, R. J. (1976). Teachers' decision making. In N. L. Gage (Ed.), The psychologyof teaching methods, Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1976.

Shavelson, R.J., & Stern, P. (1981). Research on teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgements, decisions, and behavior. Review of Educational Research, 51(4), 455-498.

Shulman, L. S., & Elstein, A. A. (1975). Studies of problem solving, judgment, and decisionmaking. In F. N. Kerlinger (Ed.), Review of research in education (Vol. 3). Itasca, Ill: F. E. Peacock.

Sloat, K. C. M., Tharp, R. G., & Gallimore, R. (1977). The incremental effectiveness of classroom based teacher training techniques. Behavior Therapy, 8, 810-818.

Tharp, R. G. & Gallimore R. (1989). Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning and schooling in social context. New York: Cambridge.

Usher, R. & Hanke, J. (1971). The "third force" in psychology and college teacher effectiveness research at the university of northern Colorado. Colorado Journal of Educational Research, 10, 2-9

Vygotsky, L. S. (1956). Izbrannie psibhologicheskie issledovania (selected psychological research). Moscow: Izdateel'stro Akademii Pedagogicheskikh Nak.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. (Eds. and Trans. by M. Cole, V. John-Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wertsch, J. V., & Stone, C. A. (1985). The concept of internalization in Vygotsky's account of the genesis of higher mental functions. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), Culture, communication, and cognition: Vygotskian perspectives (pp. 162-179). New York: Cambridge University Press.